Hon Leland Stanford
U. S. Senator

Compliments of
J. B. Lobin

ANNEX

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U. S. Senator

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J. B. Tobin

THIRD BIENNIAL REPORT

OF THE

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

OF THE

STATE OF CALIFORNIA,

FOR THE

YEARS 1887—1888.

JOHN J. TOBIN, COMMISSIONER.

SACRAMENTO:
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STATE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS,
SAN FRANCISCO, October 1, 1888.

To his Excellency R. W. WATERMAN, *Governor of California:*

SIR: In accordance with law, I have the honor to submit herewith the report of this bureau for the years 1887 and 1888, being the third biennial report.

Very respectfully yours,

JOHN J. TOBIN, Commissioner.

SYNOPSIS

OF THE

THIRD BIENNIAL REPORT OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS OF CALIFORNIA.

The Third Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of California is divided into seven parts, as follows:

PART 1. Introductory.
PART 2. Workingwomen.
PART 3. Trades Unions and Labor Organizations.
PART 4. Apprenticeship.
PART 5. Manual and Technical Training.
PART 6. Building and Loan Associations.
PART 7. Public Investigations by the Bureau.

Part 1 is subdivided into two chapters:

Chapter I. "Collecting Statistics by Mail" enumerates the difficulties to be encountered and the failure to collect statistics by sending blank forms through the mail. Amendments to the law under which the Bureau was created are suggested to increase its efficiency and compel truthful answers.

Chapter II. "Utility of Labor Bureaus" shows the work already accomplished by them and the high favor in which they are held in the twenty-two States where they have been established.

Part 2, relating to workingwomen, is subdivided into seven chapters, as follows:

Chapter I. "Lines of Investigation" explains the plan outlined by the Bureau in pursuing its investigations.

Chapter II. "General Conditions of Working Establishments" shows in a general way the condition of the establishments where

females are employed, giving the total number of persons employed, rates of wages, sanitary conditions, etc.

Subdivision 1 of Chapter II, Table "A." "Working Conditions" gives details of the hours of labor, wages, etc., of individual females while actually at work.

Subdivision 2 of Chapter II, Table "B." "Personal and Financial Conditions" relates to birthplace, age, conjugal conditions, savings, expenses, etc.

Subdivision 3 of Chapter II. "Home Conditions" shows how the girl is situated at home, number in family, location, number dependent, health, etc.

Chapter III. "Wages Paid to Workingwomen," and,

Chapter IV. "Treatment of Workingwomen" treat in detail of the subjects specified under these headings.

Under the head of "Treatment of Workingwomen," the testimony given in the investigation concerning the "sweaters" or contractors' methods shows how girls are treated by that class.

Chapter V. "Domestics" relates exclusively to that class of female wage earners.

Chapter VI. "Protective and Benevolent Institutions for Females" shows what has been done to protect and succor females in need.

Chapter VII. "Physical and Social Conditions" refers to the effects on health of various industries in which females are engaged; also refers to their manner of living, board and lodging, dress, etc. Statistics relating to prostitution in San Francisco, San Diego, and Los Angeles are also given in this chapter.

Part 3, "Trades Unions and Labor Organizations," has five chapters:

Chapter I. "Objects and Conditions" shows in detail the number of these organizations, their numerical strength, condition of the trade, etc.

Chapter II. "Wages and Hours of Labor."

Chapter III. "Strikes."

Chapter IV. "Chinese Unions and Strikes."

The titles of these chapters indicate the nature of the contents. Details concerning strikes in California for ten years past are given.

Chapter V. "Remarks and Suggestions from Trades Unions and Workingmen" convey the opinions of men from a great many

crafts upon the labor question and the best methods of improving their condition.

Part 4, "Apprenticeship," is divided into two chapters:

Chapter I. "Decay of Apprenticeship" explains the causes which have brought about this decay, and gives interesting criminal statistics showing that lack of technical or trade education brings many to our State Prisons.

Chapter II. "Native and Foreign Born Mechanics" contains tables giving the number of native and foreign born mechanics in the different industries, and tables showing relative immigration for a number of years from Europe.

Part 5, "Manual and Technical Training," is divided into six chapters:

Chapter I. "Manual Training." shows the origin and growth of manual training, and explains its necessity.

Chapter II. "Manual Training Schools" shows the number of these schools now in successful operation, their methods, and the good accomplished by them.

Chapter III. "Technical Instruction in Trade Schools" explains the work done by these schools.

Chapter IV. "The Kindergarten" has reference to the Froebel method of teaching children, and shows the rapid extension of the system in this State.

Chapter V. "Technical Education in Europe."

Chapter VI. "Opinions on Manual and Industrial Training" gives the views on this subject of prominent men, educators, business men, and mechanics.

Part 6, "Building and Loan Associations," contains three chapters:

Chapter I. "Building and Loan Associations" gives statistics relating to the origin, growth, and present condition of these associations in the State, which must prove of great value, as they are the first of the kind ever published.

Chapter II. "Coöperative Farming" shows the results of an experiment in that direction in this State.

Chapter III. "Stanford on Coöperation" gives practical suggestions from Senator Stanford relating to the formation of coöperative societies.

Part 7, "Public Investigation by the Bureau," contains three short chapters:

Chapter I. "Labor in Pacific Coast Vessels," and,

Chapter II. "Labor on the City Front, San Francisco," give a summary of the objects and results of an inquiry by the Bureau into the treatment of men working on coasting vessels, and an inquiry into the condition of men working on the city front of San Francisco.

Chapter III. "Printers in San Francisco and Oakland" gives a similar summary of an investigation by the Bureau.

The testimony taken during these investigations, which would take up about two hundred pages of the report, is entirely omitted, because it has been already published, and would shut out more important matter.

Appendix—"Labor Laws" contains:

1. Apprentice Law of New York.
2. Building and Loan Associations Laws of Massachusetts.
3. Digest of Building and Loan Associations Laws of Maine.
4. Law Relating to Employment of Minors.
5. An Act Relating to Belting, Machinery, and Elevators, and for the Prevention of Accidents.

Trades Unions and labor organizations desirous of having copies of this report for distribution among their members should make application as soon as possible, the number of copies being limited.

Societies, libraries, institutes, and persons interested in the cause of labor can obtain copies, upon application, either in person or by letter, addressed to—

STATE LABOR BUREAU,
No. 220 Sutter Street, San Francisco, Cal.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

COLLECTING STATISTICS BY MAIL.

In presenting the third biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics I take the liberty, in the first place, of submitting a few suggestions regarding the law by which it was established, with a view to its amendment. Section four of said law makes it "the duty of all officers of State departments, and the Assessors of various counties of the State, to furnish, upon the written request of the Commissioner, all the information in their power necessary to assist in carrying out the objects of this Act." The framers of this law took it for granted, seemingly, that industrial statistics were to be collected chiefly through correspondence with State and county officials.

Therefore they did not provide the means or machinery for other methods of collecting them. Experience has shown that the Assessors of the various counties will not furnish information "upon the written request of the Commissioner."

The blanks sent to them are in nine cases out of ten never returned. No person, but especially a public official, is expected to do extra work without compensation. The law being silent upon this important point, county officials locked up their information.

A very pointed and convincing illustration of this fact was given to me in my first attempt to get information from county officials. A circular, approved by Governor Bartlett, who took a deep interest in the question of manual training, was sent to the Superintendents of Schools in each county of the State, asking the following questions:

First—What is the number of school children in your county, according to the last school census?

Second—What, in your opinion, are the relative percentages of pupils in your county who study for the learned professions, clerical and commercial pursuits, agriculture, mining, and mechanical industries or trades?

Third—What are the facilities, if any, for a boy or girl learning a trade in your county?

Fourth—Do you favor manual or technical training as a part of the public school system of this State?

Fifth—What should be the scope or extent of this training?

Sixth—What particular branches of technical knowledge would you deem best for the interests of your section of the State?

Seventh—Do you favor an apprenticeship law, and for what reason?

Eighth—Are skilled mechanics in your county, such as are engaged in watch making, gold, silver, and jewelry work, engraving, lithographing, wood cutting and carving, ornamental painting, decorating, and other high grades of mechanical labor, of American or foreign birth?

Hoping that you will favor me with a reply at your earliest convenience, I have the honor to remain,

Yours respectfully,

JOHN J. TOBIN, Commissioner.

It was the first time County School Superintendents had been asked for any information on the part of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The ques-

tions were few and simple, and would not take much time or labor to answer. I flattered myself that from an educated body of men, having the welfare of youth at heart, and on a matter of such momentous importance in the direct line of their vocation, responses would come from almost every one of the fifty-two counties in the State.

Never was man more deceived and disappointed than I was, for only twelve, or 23 per cent, of the Superintendents sent replies. To make certain of some kind of an acknowledgment of the receipt of the circular sent by the bureau, return stamped envelopes were inclosed in every case. The name of the Superintendents from whom replies were received will be found in another part of this report.

It is a fact, now well established, that the attempt to collect statistics by mail has proved a failure in every State where it has been tried. Yet this was the only means by which this bureau could expect to gather statistics outside of San Francisco and its environs. The law allows only $500 per annum to pay all the contingent expenses of the bureau—postage, stationery, lights, fuel, janitor, traveling expenses, etc. Consequently I had no means to defray my own expenses or that of my deputy or of an agent in gathering statistics throughout the State. Of the thousands of blank "forms" mailed to every part of California, asking for information, not 10 per cent were returned. The preparation of these "forms" involved much time and labor, and their printing and mailing were of considerable expense to the State. A perusal of them will show that a vast amount of valuable statistical information was sought for. The result was lamentable failure, but a failure in some degree anticipated, as my circular to the newspapers (Circular No. 2) will demonstrate. The question naturally arises, Why should people refuse to furnish such data? My experience is similar to that of Commissioner Peck, of New York, who says:

"For various reasons people have failed to respond to the inquiries sent out by Commissioners. Employers have refused to answer because they believed the Labor Bureau was created for the purpose of arbitrarily prying into the conduct of their business in the interest of discontented workmen. Employés feared to answer through an apprehension that it would displease their employers and thus hurt themselves. Farmers declined to respond through a suspicion that it was a covert scheme to obtain valuation of their lands and revenue with a view to increase taxation."

Some refused because they thought they could not be compelled to answer, and many because they could not understand what benefit could be derived from furnishing the required facts.

The great majority, however, refused to respond through sheer neglect or indifference. In most of the Eastern States where Labor Bureaus have been long established and their work appreciated, distributing blank "forms" through the mail, having been found ineffectual, has been, to a great extent, discarded, and they now depend almost entirely upon work done by salaried agents. Personal inspection and interrogation by the Commissioner, or his authorized representative, is the only and proper way to obtain full, fresh, intelligent, and correct statistics. This cannot be done without an increase in the appropriation for contingent expenses, including hire of one or two agents.

The first bill introduced into the Legislature of this State to establish a Bureau of Labor Statistics, which failed to become the law, appropriated $15,000 for its support. Most of the Eastern States make liberal provision for their Bureaus of Labor. In fourteen years, from 1870 to 1884, Massachusetts spent $193,727 12 on her Labor Bureau, and appropriates annually

$6,500 for contingent expenses; New York, $6,700; Michigan, $6,500; New Jersey, $4,200, and so on. California, with its immense area and vast industrial resources, should make an appropriation for her Bureau of Labor Statistics commensurate with her rank and importance as a field for industry and enterprise.

IMPORTANCE OF ANNUAL REPORTS.

The importance of an annual inquiry into and report upon the manufacturing industries of the State cannot be over-estimated. California has made her mark in three great fields of industry: 1. Mining. 2. Agriculture. 3. Horticulture and Viticulture. She has now entered the race as a great manufacturing center, and her progress in this should be carefully watched and noted. It is especially the province of this bureau to perform this duty; but it cannot be done without the coöperation of the manufacturers themselves. Those who appreciate the objects sought to be attained in publishing statistics relating to our manufacturing industries—men of broad, intelligent views—readily answer all inquiries. They are generally the heads of our largest establishments.

DIFFICULTIES IN COLLECTING STATISTICS.

But many men are so narrow-minded, and so ignorant of the ends in view, that they will not supply the information unless upon compulsion. They think it is an illegitimate inquiry into their private affairs, and resent it with as much acerbity as the ignorant housewife did the inquiries of the first census taker. It is of no use to point out to such people that all the blanks sent to them are marked on their face, "strictly confidential;" "no names will be mentioned in reports;" "blanks destroyed after being used," etc.

Besides such assurances on the *face*, there was also printed on the *back* of manufacturers' blanks the following emphatic pledge:

Lest there should be any apprehension on the part of employers that answering any of the questions in this blank "form" may be prejudicial to their personal or business interests, the Commissioner desires it to be distinctly understood that the bureau will preserve the strictest confidence with all supplying information. The statistics collected by the investigation will be classified and grouped in *totals*, and no names of persons, employers, or employés, except by express permission, will appear in the report, or be otherwise given to the public.

To obviate the difficulties thus met with in collecting statistics, a committee of three Labor Commissioners—Carroll D. Wright, Massachusetts; James Bishop, New Jersey; Charles F. Peck, New York—drafted the following bill for submission to the various Legislatures:

AN ACT TO FACILITATE THE COLLECTION OF STATISTICAL DATA OF THE PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRIES OF THE STATE.

The People of the State, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of every owner, operator, manager, or lessee of any mine, factory, warehouse, elevator, foundry, or machine shop, or other manufacturing establishment doing business in this State, to report annually, on the first day of ——, to the Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor, the name of firm or corporation; where located; the class and value of goods manufactured yearly; the number of weeks in operation; the cost of buildings and grounds; the cost of machinery and repairs; the amount paid yearly for rent, taxes, and insurance; the value of raw material used yearly; the total amount of wages paid yearly; the total number of employés (male and female); and the highest and lowest wages paid skilled and unskilled male and female employés.

SEC. 2. The Commissioner of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor is hereby authorized to furnish suitable blanks to the owner, operator, manager, or lessee of any mine, factory,

workshop, warehouse, elevator, foundry, machine shop, or any other manufacturing establishment, to enable said owner, operator, manager, or lessee to intelligently comply with the provisions of Section 1 of this Act; and any such owner, operator, manager, or lessee who shall willfully neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions of this Act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred or more than two hundred dollars.

SEC. 3. This Act shall take effect immediately.

This bill, or one similar in substance, is now the law in several States. Governor Robinson, of Massachusetts, was so favorably impressed with the expediency of such a measure that he referred to it in his message to the Legislature, as follows:

I need hardly remind the Legislature of this State that if such a bill could be passed, its results would be of almost incalculable value, not only to the people of our State, but likewise to those of the whole United States and foreign countries as well. I cannot conceive of any sound or reasonable objection to the enactment of this bill on the part of that class of our people directly affected by its provisions, when its full scope and intent are clearly understood. I can readily understand how a manufacturer, at first thought, might urge in opposition to the passage of the measure that the information sought was of too inquisitorial a nature. But a more careful study of the real scope and nature of the series of questions asked will demonstrate that such objection will not hold good, for the reason that all data collected by such means will be classified and grouped in *totals*, and no names (except by express permission) would appear in the reports or otherwise be given to the public. The result and value to be gained by an annual exhibit of this class of statistics, which would necessarily result from the enactment of such a law, cannot be over-estimated. It would furnish an amount and character of data that would be of equal benefit to capital and labor—a solid basis of facts upon which alone intelligent legislation could be perfected.

I cannot too strongly urge upon the attention of the Legislature the absolute necessity of passing such a law. Without it all attempts to gather complete statistics relating to our manufacturing industries will be futile. Not only all the countries should be heard from, but the manufacturing industries in every county should be heard from also. Unlimited authority to inquire into the business affairs of the people, and to demand answers, with the alternative of a penalty, should not be vested in any individual, nor is it desired or asked for by the bureau. Blank forms would be prepared, which should be unobjectionable to manufacturers, yet which when properly filled out and tabulated with other of similar character would convey valuable information. After a year or two reports founded upon such data as these would be of such general interest that the system would commend itself, and no further trouble would be experienced in getting the facts.

As pertinent to the foregoing, and putting in a clear, pointed manner the futility of sending out blanks under the old system, minus the power of compelling truthful answers, the following editorial from one of the San Francisco papers deserves attention:

With regard to the blanks sent to us by the Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, we have to say that we have glanced over them. They are very carefully prepared. They have been printed fairly well. They are very complete, including many lines of inquiry—and they are of no more value than other pieces of wasted paper. What can the Commissioner hope to do towards accomplishing any fraction or iota of the purposes which the promoters of the bill to establish the bureau designed it to accomplish?

Answers cannot be enforced. There is no way of compelling an answer, no means provided for inquiring into the truthfulness of the answers, without which the measure must be useless. So far are we from blaming the Commissioner for the uselessness of the system that we assure him that we would rather have the results of his own personal investigation (exactly stating everything which he could find out, even in regard to one business, trade, or occupation) than ten thousand pages of the most correctly ciphered compilations based upon unverified assertions, whims, falsehoods, and facetious or malicious mystifications.

The statistics and other information given in this report have been obtained in most cases by personal investigation. Under the headings of "Conditions of Workingwomen" all of the establishments visited are not given, but only enough to show the condition of female wage earners in certain lines of business. By showing the treatment, hours of labor, wages paid, etc., in five or six places, in any particular line of business, it is proper to conclude that one has arrived at the general average. For instance, nearly all the factories in San Francisco, where girls are employed, were paid an

official visit, and in like manner nearly all the stores where women are employed as saleswomen, seamstresses, milliners, etc., and results noted. From these selections were made which were considered the best to indicate the conditions of the female workers in these places.

CHAPTER II.

UTILITY OF LABOR BUREAUS.

The utility of Labor Bureaus has passed beyond the experimental stage. They have become recognized indispensable National and State institutions. Outside the United States Labor Bureau at Washington they have been established in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Missouri, Ohio, New Jersey, Illinois, Indiana, New York, California, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Maryland, Kansas, Connecticut, North Carolina, Maine, Minnesota, Colorado, Rhode Island—twenty States in all. Six years ago only seven States had Bureaus of Labor. This rapid extension is mainly owing to the universal popular demand for correct statistics relating to industry. At no time in the history of the world have the relations existing between capital and labor commanded such attention as now. Demands for reform and improvement in the condition of the wage earner are loud and imperative. Real and permanent reforms however cannot be secured unless the demands for them are based upon carefully collected statistics. Both the capitalist and the workingman are safe when they are guided by facts. That is why the Knights of Labor, in their declaration of principles, make the demand for "the establishment of Bureaus of Labor Statistics, that we may arrive at a correct knowledge of the educational, moral, and financial condition of the laboring classes." The reports of these bureaus are highly prized and eagerly sought for by workingmen. All interested in the work of the Bureaus of Labor, who have watched their operations, cheerfully testify to their necessity and usefulness.

The prevalent idea that reports of Labor Bureaus are of interest only to the laboring classes, and are read only by them, is a mistaken one. Applications for copies of these reports come from all classes. The vast interest taken at the present day in all important questions of labor is illustrated by the enormous demand for statistics from all parts of the United States, Canada, and Europe.

Letters, asking for reports of the bureau, reach us not only from labor unions, but from boards of trade, immigration and land bureaus, colleges, and educational institutions, produce exchanges, loan and investment associations, libraries, etc.

Professional men, manufacturers, journalists, merchants, brokers, and men in official position, make practical use of the bureau reports of the several States.

In fact, as the famous statistician, General Walker, has truly said: "The country is hungry for information; everything of a statistical nature, or even of a statistical appearance, is taken up with an eagerness that is almost pathetic."

LACK OF FUNDS.

Unfortunately this bureau has not been provided with a "postage and expressage fund," like other departments of our State Government, and applications for reports from individuals can not generally be complied

with. This has the natural effect of a loss of much valuable aid and information, which, from motives of reciprocity of favors, this bureau could get in return from persons asking for statistical information. Crippling the utility of the bureau in the matter of postage is a "penny wise and pound foolish" policy, for spreading the light regarding the conditions of labor in the State is one of the great objects for which it was established.

BOARD OF CONCILIATION.

Not alone in supplying data relating to our labor industries is the Labor Bureau of value, but it also frequently acts as a channel of conciliation when employer and employé are in danger of clashing. On several occasions the Commissioners have been called upon to investigate grievances and conditions of labor, and as the facts were developed and light shed by publication in the press, the way was cleared and smoothened for adjustment and reconciliation.

Since the publication of the last biennial report the Commissioner has been called upon by trades unions to investigate the condition of seafaring men in Pacific Coast vessels; condition of labor on the wharves and on the city front; the causes and results of a labor strike in San Pedro; the treatment of working girls by contractors or sweaters; labor of male and female printers in certain establishments in San Francisco and Oakland; contract labor in our State Prisons.

The work in this direction done by the bureau has supplied the place which in other States is done at considerable cost by boards of arbitration and conciliation. It has entailed much cost in the way of shorthand reporting, transcribing, clerical, and traveling expenses, thereby still further diminishing, in a manner unprovided for, the small appropriation for contingent expenses of the bureau. Results following these investigations have been most encouraging, as can be seen by reference to the reports of same included in Part VII of this volume. Bureaus of Labor Statistics have no partisan mission, and whenever they assume one, their usefulness is at an end.

In the open investigations which have been held by this bureau, I gave free scope to all parties interested to present all the facts in the matter under investigation, and in my reports of the results I have given my conclusions regardless of the person or interest likely to be affected. The work of the bureau is limited to the collection, elucidation, and publication of facts. When such facts show that the laborer is ill-treated or paid unjust wages the Commissioner has not the power to punish the offender or obtain redress for the sufferer. As the eminent economist and statistician, now at the head of the United States Department of Labor Statistics, Colonel Carroll D. Wright, has pointed out: "It should be remembered that a Bureau of Labor cannot solve social or industrial problems, nor can it bring direct returns in a material way to the citizens of a country, but its work must be classed among educational efforts, and by judicious investigations and the fearless publication of the results thereof, it may, and should, enable the people to more clearly and more fully comprehend many of the problems which now vex them."

ANNUAL REPORTS OF BUREAU.

The Bureau of Labor should publish annual instead of biennial reports. Statistics to be valuable should be fresh, full, and correct. *Freshness* is a most essential quality. Under the biennial system the work of one year

has often to be done over again without the former having been published. Statistics are relied upon as of great value in scientific and economic inquiries, and are indispensable for intelligent legislation. Their usefulness depends, however, as much upon their prompt publication as upon their correct compilation. In these days of lightning dispatches and hourly editions of newspapers, two-year old news is very stale indeed. Some Eastern States, not content with the statistics supplied by the United States decennial census, have a State census taken, at enormous expense, every fifth year after the former. Nearly all the twenty-one Bureaus of Labor now established in the United States publish annual reports. California is out of line with these States.

Reciprocity of work and interchange of statistics cannot, for obvious reasons, exist between this bureau and those publishing annual reports. At the Annual Convention of Labor Commissioners, held in Boston, Massachusetts, June, 1885, concerted action was taken by the Commissioners of fifteen States for the presentation annually of a series of statistics covering in their scope a very large proportion of the industries of the country. As mutual coöperation was an essential factor in carrying out this design, this bureau, not being able to keep step with the annual publishing bureaus of the Eastern States, has to lag behind. This should not be the case. In nearly every other department of our State Government California is abreast of the times, and so she is in her conception of the plan of operations for the Bureau of Labor. What is lacking is the means to carry out the design and the law binding annual limit of time in which it should be done. In the course of investigation into conditions of labor it often happens that great abuses are discovered. These should be exposed as soon as possible. An evil exposed is half remedied. Victims of fraud or tyranny should not have to wait two years for redress. The rise and fall in the prices of labor, the increase or decrease in our manufacturing industries, the fluctuations in values and conditions as they affect wage earners, should be published at least annually, to be of value. Newspapers, boards of trade, immigration societies, transportation companies, and all interested in the healthy growth of the population of California, want fresh as well as reliable statistics regarding the condition of our industries and our working classes, for publication.

In the work of collecting the information contained in this report, I desire to acknowledge the invaluable aid and untiring services of my deputy, Mr. John G. Leibert, Jr. He had to work far beyond the limits of the official hours—from 9 A. M. to 5 P. M.—for it must be borne in mind that the labors of an entire day can often be summed up in a single sentence or two or three figures.

PART II.

WORKINGWOMEN.

CHAPTER I.

LINES OF INVESTIGATION.

The field of inquiry mapped out for this bureau, under the law creating it, is of vast extent. I have confined its investigations, however, to a few special branches, with the view of making them as thorough and complete as the limited means at my disposal would allow. This is the method under which the most successful bureaus have been conducted, and is, undoubtedly, the proper one.

The condition of women who labor for a living—their wages, hours of labor, treatment, and surroundings—the condition of trades unions in the State, apprenticeship, manual training, and building and loan associations, constituted the special lines of inquiry upon which I entered upon assuming the duties of Commissioner. My labors were of necessity chiefly confined to San Francisco. This great city, with its cosmopolitan character and its ever increasing demands for labor, afforded a wide and diversified ground for exploration.

According to the United States census of 1880, the number of women and girls in San Francisco engaged in all occupations as wage earners, was fourteen thousand one hundred and forty-two. As the city has increased about 50 per cent in population since then, twenty thousand would not be an under-estimate of the number of women and girl wage earners in that city at present, if we were to take population alone as a basis of comparison. But there was a far wider divergence in the proportion of males to females in California in the year 1880 than in 1888. Women panted for their share of California's precious gifts, and have been crowding in so as to produce a more natural equilibrium between the sexes than what formerly existed. Another important consideration is that the trades and occupations in which females are employed are increasing yearly in number. Fifty years ago, outside of employments of a domestic nature, there were only about half a dozen occupations open to women, such as spinning, weaving, dressmaking, and millinery. It was "stitch, stitch, stitch," from morning until night, and nothing beyond. The idea of a woman entering upon the profession of medicine or law would be scouted as preposterous.

Woman was considered unfit and unqualified in that sphere in which in these our days she has achieved such glorious results, viz., a teacher in our schools. It would then have been looked upon akin to a degradation for a juvenile in pants to be placed under a pedagogue in petticoats. If our grandfathers could come back from that "bourn from whence no traveler returns" and read the sign "Lady Barbers" over a barber shop in some leading thoroughfare, they would think the days of anti-Christ had come. "Times have changed, and we have changed with them." To-day

there are over three hundred occupations in which women are employed. They are constantly encroaching upon what was recognized as the exclusive domain of the opposite sex, so that complaint is made upon the part of the men that this will have the effect of cutting down their wages to the starvation point.

FILLING BLANK FORMS.

In trying to obtain a knowledge of the condition of our woman, boy, and girl wage earners—economical, moral, sanitary, physical—the various occupations were taken indiscriminately throughout the city, so that the information gathered could be representative. I regret that the limited means at my disposal did not enable me to obtain a larger representation of these conditions from each class. The working girls themselves, though generally willing to answer the questions put to them, would not fill out the "forms" left in their hands. In some establishments the young women tried to display tawdry wit in burlesque replies to the questions asked in the "form." All the matter tabulated in this report giving the condition of workingwomen was obtained by those connected with the bureau questioning the females personally. This apathy or indifference towards any movement or work tending to advance the cause of labor is chiefly owing to the want of organization among women. Among the trades unions I had but little difficulty in gathering statistics required by the bureau. Workingwomen need to be enlightened as to their wants and requirements, and the best way to accomplish this is for them to discuss and take counsel from one another how to bring about reform.

There is, I believe, only one labor organization in San Francisco exclusively composed of women, and that is an Assembly of the Knights of Labor. I had hoped, and in fact, it was so arranged, that I should have the privilege of personally explaining to that body the aims and purposes of the bureau in asking for the information indicated in the following blank "form." Unfortunately, I was given to understand that the rules of the Knights of Labor would not permit this to be done, which is strange, when I was allowed that privilege in other places. If I could have enlisted the coöperation of some of these women, who are among the most active, intelligent, and trustworthy of their sex, I could have reached a number of workers, and obtained data regarding their condition, which would be of great value. It would be highly important to have correct statistics regarding the number of females engaged in the different industries of the State, or even in San Francisco; but one man cannot do the work which the United States officials will have to employ at least fifty in doing two years from hence. The following is the "form" which was filled in collecting statistics relating to female wage workers, not including domestics. The data given applies both to women and girls:

STATE OF CALIFORNIA, BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS,
220 SUTTER STREET, SAN FRANCISCO.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics desires your coöperation with a view to more fully and accurately collect the necessary data upon which to make an intelligent report regarding the condition of female employés. The Commissioner need hardly remind you that it is only by such coöperation on the part of individuals that he can obtain reliable statistics for compilation in the biennial reports. Without such information no correct understanding of the needs of the laboring classes can be formed, and no recommendation for their advancement can be made.

You are directed to fill out the blank form on the inside as accurately as possible, and return the same to this office at your earliest convenience.

Your prompt compliance with this request will materially aid this department, and further the ends contemplated by law.

In case there should be any apprehension on the part of those receiving this form that

answering any of the questions in the blank may be prejudicial to their personal or business interests, the Commissioner desires it to be distinctly understood that the bureau will preserve the strictest confidence with all supplying information, and no names of persons, except by express permission, will appear in the report, or be otherwise given to the public.

Respectfully yours,

JOHN J. TOBIN,
Commissioner.

N. B.—All returns strictly confidential. No names will be mentioned in reports. Blanks destroyed after being used.

FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

GENERAL.

1. Number,.....
2. Name,.....
3. Residence,.....
4. At home,.....; boarding house,.....; lodging house,.....; private family,.....;
5. Occupation,.....
6. Are you paid by the piece? .....
7. Price paid per piece,.....
8. Establishment name,.....
9. Industry,.....
10. Locality establishment,.....
11. Age,.....
12. Conjugal condition,.....
13. Birthplace, ...
14. Birthplace of father,.....
15. Birthplace of mother, ...
16. Began work at.....years of age, ...
17. State of health at present time,.....

WEEKLY WAGES IN PRESENT OCCUPATION.

18. Highest, ... $.....
19. Lowest,..... $.....
20. Average,..... $.....

BOARDING AND PERSONAL EXPENSES.

21. Amount paid weekly for room, ... $.....
22. Amount paid weekly for board,..... $.....
23. Amount paid weekly for meals at restaurants,..... $.....
24. Amount paid weekly for room and board, ... $.....
25. Expense the past year for room and board, ... $.....
26. Expense the past year for clothing, ... $.....
27. Total actual expenses the past year,..... $.....
28. Savings for the past year,..... $.....
29. Deficit for the past year,..... $.....

HOURS OF LABOR.

30. Begin work at,.....; end at.....
31. Time for lunch,.....

SANITARY.

32. Is there free circulation of air through and about the building in which you work?.....
33. Are there offensive odors in the rooms occupied by employés; if so, from what causes? .....
34. Are there facilities for washing?.....
35. Are employés compelled to stand at their work?.....
36. Are there proper and separate facilities for change of dress by males and females?
37. Are there separate water-closets for males and females?.....
38. Is your workshop in cellar or basement? .....

SAFEGUARDS AGAINST FIRE.

39. Is your factory or workshop provided with fire-escapes?.....
40. Are facilities for exit in case of fire good or bad? .....
41. What cause, if any exists, have you to fear danger from fire in your factory or workshop? .....

REMARKS.

(Make any suggestion that you think will tend to improve your condition at work?)

.....

CHAPTER II.

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF WORKING ESTABLISHMENTS.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS, MACHINERY, FILES, TACKS, AND SMALL NAILS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Number of women employed, 5; boys, 50; men, 195; total, 250. Highest wages paid to machinists, $5; lowest, $2; average, $2 50. Highest wages paid to tackmakers and nailers, $4; lowest, $2 50; average, $3 50. Highest wages paid to filemakers, $2 75; lowest, $2 75; average, $2 75. Highest wages paid to molders, $3 50; lowest, $3 25; average, $3 25.

Rolling Mill Department.—Highest wages paid to rollers, $5; lowest, $3; average, $4. Highest wages paid to heaters, $5; lowest, $3; average, $4. Highest wages paid to hookers, catchers, etc., $3; lowest, $2; average, $2 50. Scrap pilers and laborers earn from $1 to $1 75 per day. Boys earn from $3 to $4 50 per week. Women tack packers earn about $9 per week at piece work. Hours of labor, 10 hours per day. The location of the mill is close to the bay, in a healthy neighborhood.

BOOKBINDERS, SACRAMENTO—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Twelve women and girls employed. Hours of labor from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; half an hour for lunch. Wages for folding and sewing, 5 cents per 100; female time workers, $7 to $8 per week; paper rulers, men, $3 50 per day; forwarders, men, $3 to $4 per day; finishers, men, $4 per day.

BOOT AND SHOE FACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Thirty females, 15 boys, and 150 men are employed. Ages of females, from 14 to 19; ages of boys, from 13 to 18. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Number of piece workers 85, and time workers 35. Average weekly wages of men $15; experienced females earn from $8 to $9 per week; boys, from $4 to $9; lowest wages to girls, $2 50 per week. No Chinese. Workshop on third floor. Separate toilet rooms and closets for the sexes. Light and ventilation good. No means of fire escape but by one stairway.

No. 2. Females employed 81; boys, 20; and 151 men. Ages of girls, from 14 to 21; ages of boys, from 13 to 18. There are six girl apprentices who work two months without wages, then $2 50 per week. Number of piece workers, 210; time workers, 45. Highest wages paid to females, piece workers, $18; average, $12 per week; boys average $4 per week; men, $18 per week. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. No Chinese employed. Workroom large, airy, and has good light. Separate dressing rooms and water-closets for the sexes. Fire escapes are very poor; no way of escape but by a narrow stairway.

No. 3. Females employed, 40; boys, 10; and 140 men. There are 26 boy and girl apprentices, who serve three months gratis and are then paid by piece work. Wages of men, from $12 to $30 per week; women, from $5 to $18. Ten hours work per day. Workroom large, well lit and ventilated.

No. 4. Females employed, 16; boys, 9; and 60 men. Wages of females, from $8 to $10 per week; boys commence at 50 cents per day; first class cutters (men) get $3 to $3 50 per day; girl apprentices average $3 50 per week; men average $18 per week. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. Boys earn from $4 to $9 per week. Workroom large, well lit and ventilated.

No. 5. Females employed, 85; boys, 20; men, 150; and 90 Chinese. Average wages to a white, skilled mechanic, $18 per week; Chinese average $1 25 per day; females $10 per week. Workshop large, well lit and ventilated. Separate dressing rooms and water-closets. Fire escape only by stairway; buckets of water placed around to be used only in case of fire.

No. 6. Females employed 3; men, 3; and 100 Chinese. Women are paid by the piece, and earn from $7 to $9 per week. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Light, ventilation, and sanitary conditions, good. About 20 Chinese working at machine in the same room with white women. Proprietor, Chinaman.

CANDY MANUFACTURERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of girls, 12; wages of girls, $4 per week or 75 cents per day; ages of girls, 17 to 25. Number of boys, 4; wages of boys, $5 per week. Hours of work, 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Men are paid (good candy makers) $3 per day. Girls are in greater supply than demand—mostly in wrapping and packing candies. Place is to be enlarged—started about fourteen years ago on small capital—to-day they can make from 1,500 to 2,000 pounds of candy per day. The improvement will necessitate more hands, as they will turn out about 5,000 pounds daily. Ship candies to Australia, China, Central America, and all over the coast.

No. 2. Number of girls employed, 6; ages of girls, 15 to 18 years; wages of girls, $4 50 to $6 per week. Number of boys, 10; wages of boys, $20 to $60 per month. Number of men, 100; wages of men, $15 to $20 per week. Behavior of girls good, diligent, and inclined to work. Boys have to be watched all the time. Apprentices give too much trouble. No waste in candy. Glucose imported from New York.

No. 3. Number of boys, 3; ages of boys, 14 to 18; wages of boys, $4 to $6 per week. Hours of work, 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. Number of girls, 1; age of girl, 18; wage of girl, $6 per week. Candy makers paid $3 per day. It takes smart men about five years to learn the business. Technical school would be a good idea; it could qualify girls and boys to fill better positions than they occupy at present. Glucose imported from Geneva. Under old rates could get it for 50 cents, now it is $2 35 per hundred.

No. 4. Number of men employed, 13; wages of men, $2 50 to $3 50 per day. Number of boys, 12; ages of boys, 14 to 18; wages of boys, $3 to $12 per week. Number of girls, 12; ages of girls, 16 to 20; wages of girls, $3 to $7 per week. Hours of work, from 7 A. M. to 5:45 P. M. Disposition of girls very good; they are most employed sitting, and show a strong desire to work; gives them every encouragement by paying them extra and advancing their position. All the filigrees for candies are imported from New York. Six years ago only 4 people were employed at work. Very little candy is now imported; the chocolate is imported, also maple sugar; molasses comes from New Orleans. Technical school would be of great advantage to the girls.

No. 5. Number of girls, 5; wages of girls, $3 to $9 per week; ages of girls, 16 to 23. Hours of work, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. Number of boys, 6; ages of boys, 16 to 21; wages of boys, $3 to $9 per week. Wages of good candy-makers, $3 to $3 50 per day. The interstate law benefits them by stopping importation of candies. Mostly city trade; turns out about 1,500 pounds per day; had about 4 employed when first started; almost ten years in business. The line of work the boys and girls are in does not warrant a technical training; they are employed in wrapping and packing; all have sitting positions. Men do moulding, pulling, and all heavy work.

No. 6. Factory girls, 9; wages, $5 to $6 per week. Salesladies, 8; wages, $7 per week. Hours, 7:30 A. M. to 6 P. M.

CLOAK AND DRESSMAKERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of women employed, 45; number of girls under 18, 5 to 6. Wages, from $3 to $9 per week. There are two workrooms; one crowded off store, and one also crowded under sidewalk; ventilation very bad; water-closet in vicinity; bad light; totally unfit for workers.

No. 2. Girls employed, 4; ages, 13 to 24; one girl apprentice, aged 13; must work one month before getting wages; then $1 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; lunch one hour. Wages, $1 to $7 per week. Workroom in cellar, under sidewalk; very small; badly ventilated; lit from gas in sidewalk; have to work by gaslight during winter.

No. 3. Twenty girls in a small back room off rear of store floor; 20x12 feet; very badly ventilated; heat oppressive. Wages, from $8 to $12 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Eighteen girls under sidewalk; dark; only lit by glass in pavement; very cold and damp; odor from sewers very bad. Water-closet in vicinity, used by both sexes; many men are employed as salesmen, who visit the closet; it is in a dirty condition. One lady worked seven years, and received $10 per week. Wages in cloak department, $6 to $10 per week.

No. 4. Twelve girls employed. Pays the apprentices $1 per week first three months; next three, gets $2 per week; then rated according to proficiency; highest is $10 per week. Workroom clean; good light and ventilation.

No. 5. Under sidewalk; small room; six girls working; ventilation through grating in sidewalk. Wages, $1 to $7. Gas burning all day, making air hot and fetid. Ages of girls, 13 to 24. Apprentices serve three months for nothing. Work from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.

No. 6. Fifty women and girls employed. Wages, from 50 cents to $9 per week. Apprentices are paid 50 cents per week, and as soon as they learn the business are paid from $3 to $4 per week. Workroom kept in good condition, but overcrowded. The girls are often obliged to work until 10 and 11 P. M.

No. 7. Twenty-five women employed—5 salesladies, and 20 cloak and dressmakers. Salesladies are paid $30 to $60; average, $40 per month. The average wages for sewing women are $7 per week; but the wages run from $5 to $10, rated according to proficiency.

No. 8. Fourteen girls. Work from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. The average cloakmaker's wages are $6 per week; some get $7 50, $8, and as high as $12 per week, rated according to proficiency. Saleslady gets $7 per week.

No. 9. Fourteen girls. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. Wages, $4, $5, and $6 per week. Forelady, $9; saleslady, $8.

CALIFORNIA COTTON MILLS, EAST OAKLAND—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

This is the only cotton manufactory on the Pacific Coast. The buildings cover about half an acre of ground, all of which—workrooms, storehouses, etc.—are of brick and of one story. The principal factory has an area of 125 by 100 feet, and contains the latest improved machinery. The location is healthy, and the surroundings very pleasant. The articles manufactured are chiefly carpets, sail cloth, rope, and twine. The manufacture of twine is the most extensive of all, as the company supplies nearly all the twine used on the Pacific Coast.

Number of women and girls, 165; number of men and boys, 65. Hours of labor from 6:50 A. M. to 5:50 P. M.; forty minutes are allowed for lunch. There are 12 girls under 15 years of age, and 8 boys, whose wages run from $1 50 to $4 per week. Wages are chiefly paid for piece work. Women earn from 75 cents to $1 50 per day.

The following is the schedule of wages paid: Foreman of pickers, etc., per week, $20. Highest per week, pickers, $12; spinners, $7 50; twisting, balling, and spooling, $8; warp-

ing and starching, $2 50. Lowest per week, pickers, $6; spinners, $6; twisting, balling, and spooling, $6; warping and starching, $2 50. Average per week, pickers, $7; spinners, $7; twisting, balling, and spooling, $7 50; warping and starching, $2 50. Loom fixers, $2 to $2 75 per day. Foreman of weavers, etc., per week, $18. Highest per week, weavers, $11; spinning doffers, $4 20; dyers, $18. Lowest, per week, weavers, $6; spinning doffers, $3; dyers, $7 50. Average per week, weavers, $7 50; spinning doffers, $3 75; dyers, $12. Average wages paid to women and girls, per week, $7 50. Average annual earnings of women and girls, $375. Wages paid to boys, per week, $3 60 to $6.

Boys about 9 years of age are paid 60 cents a day after three months work. The workrooms are large, roomy, well lit and ventilated. Order and cleanliness prevail everywhere in and around the factory. There are separate water-closets, and commodious, well arranged toilet rooms. The machinery, belting, etc., are under the workrooms, so there is no danger of the employés running risk of loss of life or limb by coming into contact with them. There are sixteen carding machines in the factory. Besides cotton manufactures, salt, sugar, and coffee sacks, also rope and twine, are made from jute. The superintendent complained of the competition in convict-made twine at San Quentin. He said that "the quantity of twine sold by the prison officials will not have much effect if they will only keep up prices. But if they increase the product it will demoralize the trade. The price of fleece twine at the mills up to May last ranged from 6 to 8 cents a pound; now the prison product is sold at 6 cents. The State," he said, "ought to stop making this twine, as it seriously interferes with free labor, and the attention of the San Francisco Board of Trade has been called to the subject. Our jute twine machine is at a standstill, and until the stock on hand is sold it will not start up again. We do not make jute goods in competition with the prison, but I hear that it is intended to increase the manufacture at San Quentin, so as to include coffee and bean bags. If this should be done our mills might as well shut down."

On the other hand, the authorities at San Quentin assert that the quantity of twine made at the prison was so small that it would not have any effect on the market. Captain Thomas, who is the Superintendent of the jute factory in San Quentin, gives the following statement as to the manufacture of twine by the convicts:

July 1, 1882, to December 31, 1882	20,461 pounds.
January 1, 1883, to December 31, 1883	56,034 pounds.
January 1, 1884, to December 31, 1884	17,670 pounds.
January 1, 1885, to December 31, 1885	60,867 pounds.
January 1, 1886, to December 31, 1886	55,805 pounds.
January 1, 1887, to July 23, 1887	50,790 pounds.
Total	261,627 pounds.

This twine consists of the kind termed fleece and hop twine, and is made of the best portion of the jute. The San Quentin product is in demand by the farmers and wool grower, who apply for it to the wholesale firms that purchase it from the prison.

To this he added that "if all the prison-made twine had been used for fleece ties, and only used in this State, it would not have sufficed for but 40 per cent of the demand." He denied that it was the intention to increase the manufacture of twine at San Quentin. With regard to the supply of raw material, the Superintendent said "that the Interstate Commerce Bill was a boon to the cotton industry of California. It prevented the 'ruinous competition' which eastern manufacturers had in the past offered, and at the same time gives the cotton producers of this State encouragement. The difference in the freight almost doubles the cost of getting the raw material hither from Texas, and the factory would be compelled to get its raw supplies, in the main, from Calcutta. The raising of cotton in California had not yet reached such a stage as to supply the market; but the advance in that direction was rapid, and it was calculated that over 600 bales would be grown here this year. Factory tests showed the cotton grown in San Diego to be the best produced anywhere in the world, aside from the sea islands. In texture it was finer, and it had more surface, and endured much better than eastern cotton, and the twine from it was incomparably stronger. The cotton manufacturers consider, in the light of all these things, that California gives promise of taking a leading place in the production of cotton."

The following communication, on the part of the operatives in the cotton factory, was presented to the bureau:

"*Convict Labor Competition with the Cotton Manufactory of East Oakland.*

"The State Prison has at present some twisting machinery for making twines that was ostensibly for the purpose of making twist for selvedges of bags, and twine for sewing bags out of the cloth made at the prison. For some years past they have begun making twines for sale, viz.: fleece twine, in small quantities at first; but last year, from statements received from them, they sold about 60,000 pounds, at 6 cents per pound, and out of this 11,000 pounds were hop twine. This gave employment to 6 men for 85 days, according to their statement, which shows the small amount of labor they can utilize at this work. We began making this jute twine on starting our mills, and sold quantities of fleece twine; and last year we had a party working for us in the hop districts, and got a number of the hop growers to try our large jute twine in room of sisal, which they had been using previously.

"Now, the points we wish to bring before the Governor are these:

"*First*—The San Quentin State Prison makes twine which is in direct competition with our free white labor of girls and boys.

"*Second*—That the amount of convict labor which this twine making employs is nominal, the machinery doing all the work, and only requiring boys and girls to attend.

"*Third*—That the field for this twine is very limited, and there is no room for strong competition, our mills being sufficient to supply the demands.

"*Fourth*—That the prison officials be instructed, through the Directors, to confine themselves to the making of grain bags only, which trade has an unlimited field, over 25,000,000 being imported yearly.

"*Fifth*—The present twisting capacity of the prison can be fully utilized in making twine and twist-yarn for bags made by themselves—sufficient for all the new plant which they may get."

FRUIT CANNERIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of females employed, 300; males, 100. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Overwork very frequent in the season. Wages paid by the piece, as follows: Packing currants, per box, 5 cents; strawberries, three boxes, 10 cents; apricots, per box, 4 cents; peaches, per basket, 11½ cents; plums and pears, per basket, 15 cents. Canning apricots, per tray, 2½ cents (20 cans in a tray); peaches, per tray, 3 cents; plums, strawberries, and currants, 2 cents. Cutting peaches, 4 cents per basket—average about twelve baskets per day. Average earning of females, $1 10 per day. Most of the girls are poorly dressed, and many appear to be of the very poorest class. They represent a great many nationalities—American, Irish, Spanish, German, Scandinavian, and a few negroes; nearly half are Italians. The establishment is large and well ventilated on ground floor; drainage bad; floor dirty and sloppy; no seats provided; there are separate water-closets for the sexes.

No. 2. Number of females employed, 100; males, 40; boys, 3. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half an hour for lunch. Wages: Pealing peaches, 15 cents per basket; pears, 25 cents per box; apricots, 5 cents per box; tomatoes, 2 cents per bucket; cherries, 2 to 5 cents per drawer, according to capacity of drawer. When females work by the hour they are paid 8½ cents an hour, or about $5 per week. Men are employed in capping and cooking fruit, and are paid 25 cents an hour. The assorter of fruit is paid $75 per month. The cannery is not roomy; seats are not provided for workers; separate water-closets are there, but no washing facilities; drainage bad, and floor sloppy. Most of the women are Italians, and the remainder represent nearly all races and colors, except Chinese.

No. 3. Number of females employed, 350; males, 100. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; half an hour for lunch. Average wages paid to women, $5 per week; men are paid from $9 to $12 per week; foremen are paid $20, and forewomen $7 per week. Value of fruit packed and canned for the past year amounted to $400,000; amount paid for labor, $54,000.

San José.

No. 4. Number of females employed, 175; males, 25. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Female packers are paid $1 per day; female cutters are paid 75 cents to $1 per day; female cutters of peaches and pears earn from $1 to $1 75 per day, paid by the piece. Men are employed in cooking fruit; foreman gets $100 per month, and is employed for the whole year; the other cooks get $2 per day. Cannery large, clean, and well ventilated; girls working are well dressed and evidently of a respectable class; location and surroundings are agreeable.

No. 5. Number of females employed, 400; males, 40. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 6:30 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Wages of females, 50 cents to $2 per day; average, $1 per day; wages of males from $1 25 to $2 50 per day; females paid by time work receive $1 per day. This is the largest fruit cannery on the Pacific Coast, having a packing capacity of fifty tons of fruit per day, and is said to be the largest in the world. The establishment is a model one of its kind; its location, surroundings, rooms, ventilation, and sanitary arrangements being all that could be desired. Seats for workers, toilet rooms, and separate water-closets are provided. Everything tending to the comfort, cleanliness, and proper treatment of the employés seems to be attended to. The result is that young ladies of education and refinement are not ashamed to be seen at work there.

No. 6. Number of girls and women, 200; men, 35; Chinese, 25. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Wages: Pealing peaches, 12 cents per basket; pealing apricots, 7 cents per box; labeling cans, ¾ cents per case of 24 cans to a case; label 8,000 cans per day; average from $2 to $2 25 per day. In fish season wages run from 75 cents to $2; average $1 25. The caser gets $9 per week; pickler gets $2 per day. There are four cooks who get from $60 to $80 per month. Can makers get 40 cents per 100 for 1 gallon cans; 80 cents per 100 for 2½ gallon cans.

No. 7. Number of women and girls, 220; boys, 20; men, 40; Chinese, 45. Capacity of factory, 40,000 cans per day when in full operation. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M; half an hour for lunch. Overtime paid for at same rates as regular time. Pealing peaches and pears, 12½ cents per basket; pealing apricots, 4 cents per box; canning cherries, 2 cents to 12 cents per box, according to size of box. About 50 girls, from 10 to 14 years of age, at 4½ cents per can for currants, earn about 50 cents per day. Women and girls canning apricots earn about $1 per day, and peaches and pears from $1 25 to $1 75 per day. Females employed in factory (ordinary hands) average about $1 per day; forewoman gets $9 a week; Chinese cooks get $2 per day; chief cook, $2 50; solderers get

$9 per week; common Chinese get $7 per week; girls employed in labeling cans get $7 per week; Chinese can makers, working by time, earn $9, and by piece $12 per week. Some of the female employés are allowed to sit on stools, but many are not, because, as was alleged, it would interfere with their work. This factory is a new, large, roomy, well lit and well ventilated building. It is kept clean. Separate water-closets are provided. Two Chinamen do the cooking for women and girls at lunch time, such as heating tea and coffee and boiling eggs, potatoes, etc. Lunch is generally partaken of in a planked, inclosed, sunny yard, where there are tables for food and boards for seats.

No. 8. Number of women employed, 250; girls, 50; men, 20; Chinese, 80. Women and girls are employed in peeling, cutting, and assorting fruit, and in canning and labeling. Men are employed in handling, freighting, and trucking fruit, and in making and packing boxes. Chinamen are employed in cooking fruit, in making and soldering cans, capping jars, and in promiscuous labor around the cannery, such as cleaning, scrubbing, etc. As nearly all labor is paid by the piece, there are no set hours of labor. Wages for assorting, cutting, and pitting apricots, 10 cents per box of from 30 to 35 pounds. Women fill from 10 to 20 boxes per day, making from $1 to $2. For canning fruit, 2 cents per dozen. Women fill from 50 to 75 per day. For filling jars (apricots), women get 7 cents per dozen, and earn from $1 to $1 50 per day. Berries, 2 cents per tray; peaches, 2 to 3 cents. Girls are allowed to take home fruit-peeling machines, and do the work of peeling fruit in their homes during the evening. Men get from $1 50 to $2 per day. Chinamen are paid from 10 cents to 12½ cents per hour. If they work at night they are paid 15 cents per hour. The cannery is composed of two large buildings running parallel. There are also outhouses. The grounds cover an entire block. The buildings are new, remarkably clean, well lighted and ventilated, and well adapted for the purpose. The floors, tables, stools, trays, etc., in cannery are washed and cleaned every day. Order and neatness prevail everywhere. A room, in charge of a competent woman, is set apart for a dressing room for females, where they can put on their working clothes. Each one has in this room a compartment for the safe keeping of her hat, dress, lunch basket, etc. Separate water-closets are also provided. In consequence of this attention to cleanliness and due consideration for the wants of the female employés, a very respectable class of women and girls is obtained. Their appearance, when at work, is healthy and cheerful.

The Chinamen work on the same floor with the women, but are confined to one end of the building. It would be better if they were separated altogether, which could be done by dividing the room by a partition. The proprietors say they have done all in their power to displace Chinese by white labor, but the latter would not do the work to their satisfaction. When the hour of 6 P. M. arrived, white men and boys would leave the cannery, although much more work remained to be done, and the result would be that a large amount of fruit would be destroyed. Chinese, on the contrary, will work overtime in the busy season, and the managers do not run the risk of loss. Another cause of objection to American boys is that they *will* flirt with the girls in the cannery during business hours. Young boys, also, are in the habit of filling their pockets with small fruit, and, not content with eating their fill, amuse themselves by pelting one another with the fruit. No complaint is made about the girls, who do their work well and cheerfully. The manager says that if the California boy would only behave himself no boy anywhere could surpass him as a worker. American boys will never work well in the same establishment with the Chinaman.

FRINGES, CORDS, ETC., MAKERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Ten women, 4 boys, and 4 men employed. Wages paid by the piece; average wages paid to men, $15 per week; average wages paid to women, $6 per week; average wages of boys, $5 per week. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Workroom large, clean, and well ventilated.

No. 2. Thirty girls employed in reeling and sewing. Hours of labor, 8 to 6—both piece and time workers. Average $4 to $6 per week. The workshop is on the third floor of the building; closet used in common. Fire escapes are not considered, the stairway being the only means of exit. Place otherwise light and well ventilated.

FUR GOODS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of hands, 100; number of apprentices, none; number of females, 80. Knowledge of the business is acquired at home. Hours from 8 to 6. Employer approves of articled apprenticeship. Workshops on upper stories, and are well lit and ventilated.

No. 2. Twelve women, 1 boy, and 3 men employed. Highest wages paid to men, $15; average wages paid to men, $12. Women earn from $3 to $7 per week. Workroom on top floor. Good light and ventilation, but not clean.

No. 3. Two girls, sewing furs. Hours, 8 to 6. Wages, $5 and $6 per week in summer, and $8 and $9 in winter. Saleslady gets $7 in summer, and $9 in winter. This variation in wages is owing to the overtime in winter.

FEATHER FACTORY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

One girl employed, curling feathers. Hours of labor, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. Wages per week, $5.

GLOVE MANUFACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of girls, 40. Wages of girls average from $7 to $9 per week. Hours of labor, from 9 A. M. to 4 P. M. All work by the piece, so that the hours are optional. No

girls at work under 14 years of age. Workroom small and crowded, but well lit and ventilated.

No. 2. Number of girls employed, 24; ages of girls, 18 to 20; wages paid girls (piece), $4 to $12 per week. Boys employed, 3; ages of boys, 18 to 20; wages of boys, $6, and $30 per week for good workmen. Hours of work, from 7:30 to 5:30; one hour for lunch. Have a great supply of skilled workmen. Most of the girls do their work at home, and make handsome wages. They train their sisters and others in the family to do the work. A technical school would be of great advantage in this trade, as girls and boys would find plenty of employment by taking the work home.

No. 3. Number of girls, 15; ages of girls, 18 to 40; mostly girls between 18 and 20. Hours of work, 7:30 to 5:30. Wages of girls, $7 to $12 per week. Number of boys, 2; ages of boys, 17 and 18. Have no apprentices, as the boys and girls will not subject themselves to be controlled, and parents will not bind their children. Motive power supplied by electricity. Most of the work is done on the outside by the hands employed, and by others who do the work at home. A technical school would be of great service to the young people, as they might be masters of the glove business, and command a large pay. Place light, airy, and well ventilated. Work sitting.

No. 4. Forty women and 15 men employed. Highest wages paid to women, $12 per week; lowest wages paid to women, $6 per week; average wages paid to women, $7 50. Men cutters earn $18 by piece work; men cutters earn $16 50 by time work. Layers out, $12 per week. Hours of labor, 9½ per day. Work room clean, good light and ventilation.

No. 5. Sixty girls employed both at time and piece work: Silkers, $10 to $14 per week; fitters average $9 to $10 50 per week; banders, $9 to $10 50 per week; driving glove makers, $10 to $13 per week; trimmers, $6 to $7 per week; fasteners, $3 to $5 per week; buttoners, $3 to $5 per week. All piece work. Men: Wax threaders, $25 to $30 per week; table cutters, $18 to $30 (piece); block cutters, $3 per day (time); sheep skin cutters, $1 50 to $2 per day (time); layers off (finishers), $6 to $9 per week (time); apprentices, $5 per week.

No. 6. Three girls employed in boxing, labeling, and polishing, and work nine hours per day; get $1 per day, or $30 per month.

HOSIERY FACTORY, OAKLAND—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Manufactures hosiery and underwear. Total number of employés 107, as follows: Men, 14; boys, 11; women and girls, 83. About 15 girls under 16 years of age. Hours of labor: Eleven hours per day except Saturday, when work stops at noon and half an hour added for cleaning up. This makes 60 hours and 45 minutes for the entire week. Time for lunch, 35 minutes. Wages paid as follows: 1 carder, foreman, $25 per week; 5 carders, boys, $1 per day; 1 spinner and loom fixer, $22 50 per week; 1 spinner, assistant, $1 75 per day; 2 spinner boys, $1 10 and $1 per day; 4 spinner girls, $1 per day; 1 finisher, forewoman, $2 per day; 1 finisher, stoking, $2 per day; 1 finisher, $1 25 per day; 6 finishers, $1 per day; 1 dyer, $24 per week; 1 helper, $12 per week; 2 wool washers, $2 per day each; 1 packer, $1 50 per day; 1 engineer, $22 50 per week; 1 fireman, $13 85 per week; 1 watchman, $2 per night; 1 office clerk, lady, $9 per week. Females at piece work average $1 25 per day. Wool sorters, men, get 40 cents per 100 pounds, and average from $3 50 to $4 per day. Piece work is sometimes given out and worked by females at their homes. In the finishing room there were 35 women and girls employed, four of the latter being under 15 years of age. This room is remarkably clean, well lit and ventilated. Dressing and toilet rooms and separate water-closets are provided for the females. Each female employé has a separate locker for her clothes, and the whole arrangement of the dressing room resembles, in neatness and precision, a well ordered armory. There are facilities for cooking by gas, so that all the females employed in the establishment can heat, or, if necessary, cook their lunch with dispatch without soiling their fingers. As a result of this respectful and considerate treatment of their employés, the management have secured a most intelligent and respectable class of female workers. The visitor is at once impressed by the neat appearance and cheerful faces he meets with among the female operatives of this admirably managed factory.

HAND EMBROIDERY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Six girls employed in doing hand embroidery, piece work; average about $1 25 per day. Embroidery is mostly done by machinery.

HARNESS MAKING, BRAIDING—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Ten girls employed braiding lashes and making pads. Hours of labor, 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. Piece workers average $7 50 per week; time workers get $10 per week.

No. 2. Twenty girls employed; $7 50 per week.

HAIRDRESSERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Five girls employed; average $7 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. The general wages, $5 to $10 per week; takes six months to learn the trade; nothing paid while learning; employed at hairdyeing, dressing, and manicuring.

No. 2. Seven women employed. Hairworkers, hours 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; wages, $3 to $8; average, $5. Hairdressers, hours 8 A. M. to 8 P. M.; wages, $8 to $15; average, $10. Hours on Saturday, 8 A. M. to 10 P. M.

No. 3. Fifteen women employed—5 salesladies and 10 hairdressers; salesladies, $5 to $14 per week; average, $9. Hairdressers, $3 to $8 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.

No. 4. Four girls employed. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. A good hairdresser can average $12 to $14 per week; must do hairdressing, manicuring, bleaching hair, etc. The wages of the above girls are, respectively, $8, $10, $12, and $15 per week.

No. 5. Two girls. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. Wages, $2 50 and $8. An experienced woman can average $12 to $15 per week.

JAPANNING AND TIN WORK—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Six girls employed in soldering and making small lard cans and buckets; work by piece and average $8 per week. In the japanning department girls get $6 per week of ten hours' work.

CALIFORNIA JUTE MILLS, OAKLAND—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Articles manufactured, bags, burlaps, ore bags, twine, and horse blankets. Established in 1869. In June, 1887, when I visited this establishment, there were 219 white employés, consisting of men and boys, 135; women and girls, 84; Chinese, 150; total, 369. The Chinese earned in 26 days, $8,400, and the 219 whites about $3,940 55. The working capacity of the mill is about 1,300 grain bags per day. In June, 1887, when I visited the mills, 705 bales of jute were manufactured into grain bags (188,000 pounds); hop cloth, 66,444 pounds; and matting, 75 rolls. In the same month the mill consumed 177 tons of coal, at a cost of $22 22 per day; 52 gallons of oil per day, for softening jute (30 cents a gallon); and the bill for water amounted to $93 98. The working hours are from 6:50 A. M. to 5:50 P. M., ten and one half hours per day; one half hour is allowed for lunch. Number of boys under 16, 65; girls under 16, 45. Wages of boys are from 50 cents to $1 per day; girls from 40 cents to $1 25 per day; wages are paid generally for piece work. Weavers earn from $1 50 to $2 per day; spinners from $1 to $1 40 per day; bag sewers from 65 cents to $1 per day. Chinese earn from $4 50 to $7 50 per week. Highest wages paid to men, $22 50 per week; lowest wages paid to men, $7 50 per week; average wages paid to men, $12 per week. A fine of one quarter a day is imposed for dilatoriness, according to the rules posted in the workroom. The foremen and forewomen are all of the white race, and it is the present policy of the management to dispense with, as soon as possible, Chinese labor entirely. Some five years ago the Superintendent went to Scotland and engaged a number of experienced female weavers, whom he brought over to work in the mills. The venture did not prove profitable, as the majority did not remain long enough to repay the company for the expense incurred. One cause for this was that there were too many Benedicts lounging around the neighborhood who were captivated by the blooming cheeks of the lassies fresh from the "land of cakes." The boys employed are a mixture of races, white, yellow, and black. Their ages are from 8 to 16 years. The majority are from Portugal or the Azores. Their work consists in removing empty bobbins from the spinning frames and replacing them with full ones. They have to be very quick at the business, for the machinery has to stop while they are doing this. Older hands cannot do this work so well, for it requires small, deft fingers to get in between the narrow spaces in the machinery. Few of these children have received any education whatsoever. Their parents are generally very poor and illiterate. The mothers of some work in the mill, and I have been credibly informed that some of the unnatural parents live off the earnings of these little toilers. There can be no question but that the work is injurious, both morally and physically. The children are not only deprived of education, but they are kept at work 10½ hours per day, in a heated, stifling atmosphere, impregnated with floating filaments. Their clothing is scant and poor. They look dirty and sickly. The evidence of overwork and parental neglect are palpable. Girls are also employed in bag sewing and bag piling. In the latter they earn 40 cents per day, as can be seen in the tabulated returns. Revolving machines, in close juxtaposition, without any safeguards, and belting on all sides, running at a rapid rate, render an accident liable to occur at any moment to these little ones. The workrooms are large, well lit, and well ventilated, and there are separate water-closets for males and females. The sanitary arrangements are good, but the ceilings of the workrooms are too low, and the rooms too crowded. Due attention is not paid to cleanliness. It is difficult to keep such an establishment clean, from the nature of the work, but there is considerable room for reform in this connection, on the part of the management.

LADIES' UNDERWEAR—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Seventy-five women and girls, 2 boys, and 12 men employed. Wages, piece work paid females, run from $4 to $9 per week. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Factory large, well lit, and well ventilated.

No. 2. Number of girls, 20; ages from 15 to 23; wages of girls from $6 to $7 50 per week. Hours of work from 8 A. M. to 5:50 P. M.; half an hour for lunch; all paid by the day. The place is situated under the sidewalk, or in a cellar of building, where, in case of fire above, the girls could never make their escape. The only ventilation comes through the elevator shaft, rendering the atmosphere unhealthy. A technical training school in this line would be advisable and taken advantage of by the girls, as they could have a chance of a good position, being prepared and suited for work. Most of the girls learn sewing in the factories.

No. 3. Number of women, 15; number of girls, 3; ages from 12 to 13. Wages from $1 50 to $2 per week. Workroom on upper floor; light and ventilation good.

LACE GOODS WORKERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Ten girls employed in making lace goods. Hours of labor, 7:30 A. M. to 5:25 P. M.; average about $5 25 per week; three quarters of an hour for lunch. Work is done by machinery. About 50 girls employed at this work in city. No lace manufactured in California.

MATCH FACTORY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Twenty-four girls employed in wrapping and separating. Work by the piece so much per gross, averaging $6 per week. Hours of labor, 7 A. M. to 5 P. M.

MILLINERY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Six girls. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; alternately, each girl must work from 7 to 9 one night in week. The milliner gets $14; the salesladies get respectively, $6 per week; one gets $10, forewoman.

No. 2. One girl. Trimmer and one saleslady each gets $15 per week. Hours 8 A. M. to 4 P. M.

No. 3. Twenty-five girls. Average, $7 per week; majority get $3, $4, $5, and $6 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 8 P. M.

No. 4. Two salesladies, 4 trimmers, 2 makers (inferior work). Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. Wages, salesladies, $18 and $20 per week; trimmers, $18 per week; makers, $12 to $15 per week. These women are the most proficient in the city.

No. 5. Fifteen girls employed: 6 salesladies, and 9 in workroom. Salesladies' wages, $6 to $8 per week. Hours, 6 A. M. to 8 P. M. Sewing women, wages, $5 to $10; average, $6 per week.

No. 6. Six girls, 3 salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 8 P. M. Wages, about $7 per week; trimmers, $8 per week.

No. 7. One saleslady and 1 hat trimmer. Wages, $7 per week. Hours, 7:30 A. M. to 8 P. M.

NECKTIES AND SUSPENDERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Forty girls employed. Work from 8 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; average, about $7 per week. All work done by the piece. Many of the women take the work to their homes. Apprentices get $2 50 to $3 per week.

PAPER BOX FACTORY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of girls employed, 22; boys, 4. Wages of girls range from $3 to $9 per week. Hours of labor, from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half hour for lunch. Workroom large; well lighted; on the top floor of five-story building; a large, handsome brick building; four stairways and two elevators for fire escapes. Employés all look happy and contented; can sit or stand while at work; all speak kindly of employer and foreman; allowed to eat lunch on their work tables. All live at home, and bring lunch with them. One girl refused to give statement, and said their good condition would induce immigrants to come to this coast, and reduce their wages.

No. 2. Number of girls, 45; ages of girls, 14 to 20; wages of girls, $3 to $12 per week; average about $8 to $9 per week. Boys, 8; ages, 18 to 21; wages, $5 to $17 per week. Hours of labor 7:30 A. M. to 6 P. M. Most of the work is done by the piece; some of the boys and girls get paid by the week. Have one hour for lunch. Girls are very attentive to work.

PRINTING HOUSES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Fourteen females employed. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half an hour for lunch. Wages from 25 cents to 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom clean, but not well ventilated; it is close to a market, the odors from which are offensive and injurious; there is but one water-closet, which is in a filthy condition.

No. 2. Seven females employed, from 18 to 24 years of age. Scale of prices, 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom on top floor, clean, good light, and well ventilated; separate water-closets.

No. 3. Nine females employed. Wages from 25 cents to 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom very small, dirty, and badly ventilated.

No. 4. Six females employed, from 16 to 22 years of age; no apprentices. Wages 35 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom small, but clean, and well ventilated.

No. 5. Four females employed, from 15 to 20 years of age. Wages, 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom small, well lit, but very dirty.

No. 6. Twenty females employed. Wages, 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom crowded, well lit, but not clean.

No. 7. Five females employed, and 4 boys. Wages, 25 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom clean, well ventilated, and separate water-closets.

No. 8. One girl employed. Workroom small, well lit, but not clean; water-closets very dirty; washing facilities bad.

No. 9. Six females employed. Wages, 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom small, and very dark; water-closets very filthy; no washing facilities.

No. 10. Two females employed. Wages, 30 cents per one thousand ems. Workroom large, good light, and well ventilated; separate water-closets.

SOAP FACTORY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Three girls employed. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Average wages, $5 per week; employed in boxing and wrapping soap.

SALT WORKS.

Four girls employed in sewing sacks and packing salt. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Average wages, $6 per week.

STRAW HATS.

Ten girls employed sewing hats. Hours of labor from 8 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Work by piece; average about $6 per week.

SALESWOMEN—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Dry Goods.

No. 1. Three salesladies; $10 per week. Hours of labor, 9 A. M. to 6 P. M. three days in the week; balance of week, work 9 A. M. to 9 P. M. No seats—standing compulsory.

Fancy Goods.

No. 2. Six salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; wages, average $8. No seats—standing compulsory.

Ladies and Children's Underwear.

No. 3. Two salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 10 P. M.; wages, $5 per week. No seats—standing compulsory.

Gentlemen's Dry Goods.

No. 4. Three salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; wages, $10 per week. No seats—standing compulsory.

Fancy Dry Goods Store.

No. 5. Ten salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; $10 per week. No seats—standing compulsory.

Dry Goods and Cloaks.

No. 6. Seven salesladies in cloak department; average, $12 per week. Hours of labor, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. No seats—standing compulsory.

General Merchandise, Dry Goods, etc., Sacramento.

No. 7. Saleswomen dry goods department, lowest wages, $20 per month; highest, $62 50; average, $39. Female clerks, lowest wages, $20 per month; highest, $50; average, $28. Millinery saleswomen, $40 to $100 per month; average, $56. Millinery trimmers and makers, $25 to $80 per month; average, $47. All extra work that is done after the regular business hours is paid for at the rate paid for ordinary business time. Seats provided; all females can sit whenever they feel inclined.

Toys and Trinkets.

No. 8. Seven salesladies; wages, $7 per week. Work 9 hours. No seats; standing compulsory.

Boots and Shoes.

No. 9. One saleswoman; wages, $15 per week; one bookkeeper, $15 per week. Work 12 hours. Allowed to sit down.

Candy Store.

No. 10. Eight salesladies; wages, $7 per week. Hours, 7:30 A. M. to 6 P. M. Compelled to stand.

Flowers and Feathers.

No. 11. Eleven salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 9 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Average, $8 per week; lowest, $6; highest, $10 per week. No seats provided.

No. 12. Two salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 8 P. M.; wages, $5 and $7 respectively. Sitting allowed.

Gloves and Parasols.

No. 13. Four salesladies; 9 hours work. Average, $8 per week; highest, $11; lowest, $7. No sitting.

Books.

No. 14. Four salesladies; $25 and $30 per month. Hours, 8 A. M. to 9 P. M. Sitting allowed.

Fancy Goods.

No. 15. Two salesladies. Work from 8 A. M. to 9 P. M.; Saturday evenings, until 11 o'clock. Wages, $1 per day. No sitting allowed.

Corsets.

No. 16. Twenty-five girls. Salesladies' wages, $5, lowest; $14 highest; average, $8 per week; sewing women, lowest, $6; highest, $12; average, $7 per week. Hours, 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. Sitting allowed.

Ladies' Underwear.

No. 17. Three salesladies; average, $7 per week; 5 operators, $7 per week. Hours, 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; one half hour for lunch; none paid less than $5 50. No sitting allowed.

Fancy Goods.

No. 18. Fifteen salesladies. Hours, 8 A. M. to 8 P. M. Wages, $6 to $12; average, $7; during Christmas time, has 60 women employed. Standing compulsory.

Cloaks.

No. 19. Twenty-five women; 5 salesladies, 20 cloak and dressmakers. Salesladies are paid $30 to $60, and average $40 per month. Allowed to sit.

SHIRT FACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Two hundred girls employed, and 40 Chinamen employed as ironers. Wages of girls, from $3 to $8 per week. Hours of labor from 8 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half an hour for lunch. In answer to the question, "Do not the Chinese keep many women from industries like shirtmaking," etc., the manufacturer said: "On the contrary, the Chinese assist white women into them. They do not take work away from them; they give it to them. It was only by the aid of Chinese labor that the manufactories which now exist here were started. Fifteen years ago the price of white labor on this coast precluded the possibility of manufacturers here competing with eastern manufacturers. Cheaper labor was supplied in the Chinese, and by using them we, in common with others, were enabled to start factories. I venture the assertion that 75 per cent of the manufacturing industries on this coast owe their existence to Chinese labor. The manufacturers employed them exclusively at first, but gradually white people were worked in, and at present there are probably a great many more white than Chinese employés in the service of white manufacturers in this city." The factory is a model of neatness, well lit and ventilated. The sanitary condition is excellent, and the males and females work in separate apartments. Number of Chinese, 75; number of girls, 25; wages of girls, $6 to $14 per week, at shirt making; wages of girls sewing by hand, $2 50 to $8 per week; wages of girls making button holes on machine, $12 to $15. Ages of females, from 18 upwards; mostly over 35. Separate closets provided for the sexes. Good experienced girls are greatly in demand—could find employment for a great many if they could only be obtained. Most of the work is done by piece. Machinery is used mostly, even in cutting and sewing the button holes in the lower grade of shirts, when from 800 to 1,000 button holes can be cut and sewn in one day. Chinese do the washing, ironing, and starching. Cuffs and collars are ironed by machinery.

SILK FACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Number of girls, 57; boys, 5. Hours per day, 10; half hour for lunch. Wages of girls, $5 75 per week; beginners, $3 75. Articles manufactured, silk thread. About five years ago this factory started with about two girls. It costs about $7 per pound to raise silk here, while it can be imported for $6. The girls can fill about 3,000 spools each per day. The trade is local, shipping not further than Utah and a little to Australia. Most of the machinery was manufactured in Connecticut. Wages are paid monthly, but advances will be made to any of the employés. The weight of silk loses about four ounces, or falls from sixteen to twelve ounces by the dyeing process.

No. 2. Ten girls; youngest, 13 years; four are 14; two are 17; one 15; one 16. One 17-year old girl is employed on the winder and at the vat; gets $5 25 per week; is forewoman. Two girls get $3; three get $3 25; three get $4 25. The $3 girls are on the cotton frame; $3 25 on raw silk winder; $4 25 on doubler and reeler. Hours of labor, 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half hour for lunch. All are given $2 per week to start on, which, after three weeks, is gradually increased to $4 50, etc. Workshop is small; located on the third floor of an immense frame building, a carpet cleaning establishment occupying the other upper floor, and the ground floor is occupied by a livery stable. The appearance of the place is anything but inviting, being filled with a lot of machines, dyeing vats, and apparatus.

No. 3. Pacific Silk Factory, San José. Organized 1882. Articles manufactured, silk cloth. There are 21 looms and 21 men and women employed in weaving. Wages, about $1 50 per day; all paid by piece. Each makes 14 yards of silk per loom per day, for light goods. The retail price is $1 25 to $1 50 per yard. Capacity of ten power looms, 126 yards daily. There are seven looms run by hand power, the rest by steam. The factory makes 6 to 8 yards daily of heavy goods. Gross grain and satin weavers earn $1 50 to $2 per day, according to skill. The factory is a small frame structure; rather crowded, but plenty of light and ventilation.

TOBACCO AND CIGAR FACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Fifty girls and 20 boys and 200 Chinamen employed. Ages of girls from 16 to 23. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Chinese paid by piece, earning from $6 to $10 per week; girls earn from $4 to $9, and boys from $5 to $12 per week. Workshop on upper floor, well lit and ventilated.

No. 2. Four girls, 2 boys, and 40 Chinese employed. Ages of girls, from 15 to 20. Hours of labor from 8 A. M. to 5 P. M. Girls earn from $4 50 to $5, and boys from $4 50 to $5 50 per week. Only one water-closet on premises.

No. 3. Six girls, 5 white men, and 100 Chinese employed. Ages of girls, from 14 to 20. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. Wages of girls from $4 to $6; of men, $10 to $12, and of Chinese, $6 to $15 per week. Workroom large and well ventilated, on second floor. Girls work in same room with Chinese.

No. 4. Thirty-five girls and 80 Chinese employed. Ages of girls, from 17 to 26. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Girls earn from $4 to $6, and Chinese from $6 to $12 per week. Girls work in the same room with Chinese, but have separate water-closets.

No. 5. Twelve girls, 2 boys, and 40 men employed; no Chinese. Ages of girls, from 18 to 25. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 5 P. M. Girls earn from $6 to $8 per week. All work done by the piece. Girls employed in stripping, while one girl is making cigars. Workshop well lit and well ventilated.

No. 6. No girls, 10 boys, and 120 Chinese employed. Ages of boys, from 14 to 21. Wages from $5 to $7 per week; Chinese earn from $7 to $15 per week. The firm does not employ girls because they found them too troublesome; they had to be watched closely to see that they attended to their work.

No. 7. No girls, 8 men, and 60 Chinese employed. Men earn from $10 to $14 per week; Chinese from $5 50 to $10. Firm does not employ girls owing to their immoral tendencies. The technical school for training boys and girls to make cigars was a failure, owing to the hoodlum disposition of those engaged.

No. 8. Cigarettes—20 girls and 5 boys employed. Ages of girls, from 17 to 28; boys, 18 to 25. Hours of labor from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M. Wages of girls, $1 to $1 50 per day, and of boys from $5 to $10 per week. In cigarette making the demand exceeds the supply. All work is done by the piece. A girl who is a good worker can make about 2,500 cigarettes per day at 60 cents per thousand. Workshop well lit and well ventilated. Girls can come and go when they please.

No. 9. Cigars—17 girls, 6 boys, and 77 men employed; no Chinese. Eight hours a day's work. One hundred and thirty thousand dollars worth of cigars manufactured last year. Capital invested, $70,000. Amount paid for labor during the past twelve months, about $48,000. This is a model establishment, clean, well lit, and ventilated, separate water-closets, etc. Employés are treated with kindness and consideration.

No. 10. This cigar factory is known as the Pacific Coast Coöperative Cigar Manufacturing Company. Capital stock, $20,000; value of cigars manufactured last year, $25,000; paid for labor, $10,353 56; number of men employed, 15; number of women employed, 3. Men average $15 40 per week, working by the piece at union rate. Women average $6 per week. No boys are employed. Eight hours constitute a day's work. The workroom is large, airy, and has good light. As this factory is one of the very few coöperative enterprises which has been successful in California, it is well to publish its history, which was kindly furnished by the Secretary of the company, Mr. Henry Knobel.

Pacific Coast Coöperative Cigar Manufacturing Company.

The Pacific Coast Coöperative Cigar Manufacturing Company was incorporated under the laws of the State of California July 14, 1886. This institution, like most of those of a similar nature, is the offspring of necessity. During the year 1886, through the agitation of the Chinese question, the conflict between "white labor" and "Chinese labor" reached its climax. Labor organizations all over the coast inaugurated a "boycott" against all employing Chinese labor in any capacity, extending it even to those employing Chinese as house servants or laborers. The crusade was also conducted against those using goods manufactured by the Chinese.

The cigar manufacturers of San Francisco, alarmed into action by a repudiation of their Chinese-made cigars, so general as to threaten their commercial ruin, sent East, through the Cigarmakers International Union, No. 228, for cigarmakers, promising them permanent work under the Union scale of prices. One of these manufacturers, William Lewis by name, could not wait the tardy action of the mails, and telegraphed to Buffalo, New York, for 100 men. The present members of the "Pacific Coast Coöperative Cigar Manufacturing Company" were partially of this unfortunate contingent, known as "The Bill Lewis 100." Acting with his customary (?) good faith, Lewis discharged his white cigarmakers, after from one to four months employment, notwithstanding he had engaged them on a year's contract. Finding themselves without work, with little money, and no disposition to starve, nine of the unfortunates allied themselves with the proprietor of a small factory, and under the leadership of George Fleishman (the foreman of the Coöperative Cigar Manufacturing Company of Albany, New York), organized and incorporated this factory. The company originally consisted of ten members, with a capital stock of $10,000, divided into ten shares, of $1,000 each. After an existence of about ten months the company was involved in an expensive and lengthy litigation with one of its recalcitrant members. His object was to either gain his point or kill the institution. It is, perhaps, needless to say that he failed utterly in realizing either of his ends. The company came out of the strife victorious, though having sustained some loss through its interrupted business, which covered a period of some two months.

Since its establishment, also, two dissatisfied members have withdrawn from the company, and their stock has been purchased by those more recently allied with the company. This change has been fortunate for the institution, as it has gained good and willing co-workers, and lost the only element which threatened its disruption.

In the month of December, 1887, the company increased its capital stock to $20,000, divided into twenty shares of $1,000 each. It, at this time, took in seven new members, each purchasing a share of the company's stock. Within the history of the company,

thus far, no insuperable obstacles have been met with, and its advancement has been continuous and uninterrupted. No institution of its kind anywhere can point to the record of its past with more pride, or scan its future with less fear or with greater assurance of a rich reward for the arduous labors the projectors suffered during the first few months of its existence, and for their heroic self denial, which has, after all, been the chief factor in the solution of this problem.

The officers of the company consist of a President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and Board of Directors of ten members. The officers are elected at the annual meeting of the stockholders in January of each year.

The corporate power of the company is vested in the Board of Directors, who have full control of the business of the company, and employ a manager, who has charge of the manufacturing portion of the business, and has full control of the factory. The manager employs all cigarmakers, packers, strippers, etc., and has power to discharge any such at any time when their work is not satisfactory. Stockholders who may be working in the factory have the right of appeal to the Board of Directors in all cases where they have any grievances, and the decision of the Board of Directors is final.

The manner of paying up the shares is perhaps best described by the following articles from the By-laws:

ARTICLE I. All stock of this corporation shall be subject to assessment until fully paid up.

ART. II. The assessment upon each share of stock shall be twenty dollars per month until fifty per cent of the par value of said share of stock shall have been paid, and thereafter the assessment upon each share of stock shall be ten dollars per month, until the par value of each share of stock shall be fully paid up.

ART. III. Stockholders who are engaged in laboring for or in conducting the business operations of the corporation may pay assessments upon their stock either in *said labor or in cash, as they may prefer.*

Upon the failure of any stockholder to pay his assessment within thirty days after it is due and payable, he shall be deemed delinquent, and his share of stock shall be disposed of in accordance with the statutory provisions as laid down in the Civil Code of California, at any time after such delinquency, as the Board of Directors may choose to order.

TYPE, WOOD CUTS, AND PRINTERS' SUPPLIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Number of women, 45; boys, 10; and men, 30. All time workers. Wages paid to type casters (weekly average), $15; stereotypers, $15; wood engravers, $15; women engaged in breaking and rubbing, $7 50; boys are paid from $3 to $9 per week. Hours of labor from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; an hour for lunch. Wood engravers work only eight hours per day. Workroom large, well lit, and well ventilated.

TYPE FOUNDERS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Three women, 3 boys, and 10 men employed. Apprentices are paid from $3 to $7 per week; electrotypers and stereotypers average $21 per week; women earn about $9 per week.

TENTS, DUCK, BAGS, ETC.—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Sixty-two women employed. Time workers get $7 50 per week; piece workers average $9 per week. Many of the females are mere children, aged from 9 to 11 years. Work nine hours in winter, and ten hours in summer. Children get $2 50 per week; they are merely helpers. Workshop is large, occupying third floor of building; the fire escapes are very poor; separate water-closets are provided for the girls.

No. 2. Fifty girls employed. Average about $6 50 per week; mostly piece workers.

MANUFACTURE OF UNDERWEAR, OVERALLS, ETC.—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Seventy-five girls and women employed. Wages all piecework; 60 cents a dozen for lowest class of shirts; average from $3 to $10 per week. Hours from 7:30 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; lunch, one hour. Workroom on top floor; well lit and ventilated; no separate water-closets; fire escape, stairs, and elevator.

No. 2. Let out work (sewing). Boys' blouses, 80 cents per dozen, and aprons 25 cents per dozen. Three women sewing for him now. One woman and her mother together manage to make 80 cents per day on above work. Store cold and dirty, and sewerage bad. One girl worked seven years as operator on machine; gets $8 per week.

No. 3. Three girls employed; ages, 16 to 23. Wages: one who has worked seven months at trade gets $3 50 per week; another experienced hand gets $3 per week; highest wages paid, $6; lowest wages paid, $1. Hands must work a week gratis before wages are paid. One Japanese operator and one new operator. Hours from 7:30 A. M. to 6 P. M.; one hour for lunch. Workroom small and dirty; tobacco smoking all day; boss lives in rear; smell of cooking very bad.

No. 4. Four girls employed. One girl gets $8 per week; does fine work; the others get from $3 to $5 per week. Ten hours' work per day. Workroom small and dirty.

No. 5. Seven girls employed; ages, 14 to 35. One girl apprentice; must work four weeks gratis. Necktie department has 5 girls. Piecework, 30 cents per dozen. One girl who has worked six weeks receives $3 50 per week; one woman gets $3 per week. In a department where bed comforters are made there are two women; piecework, seven for $1; earn about 85 cents to $1 or $1 25; work very laborious. Hours from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M.; one

hour for lunch. First room badly ventilated; fairly lighted; second room dark and dirty. Closet filthy; no washing facilities.

WAITER GIRLS—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Girls working, 10: nine waiters and one cash girl. Hours of labor, 7 A. M. to 8 P. M.; two hours and a half off every other afternoon. Wages average $6 per week and board.

No. 2. Two girls working; one receives $6 per week, and the other $7 and board. Work from 6:30 A. M. to 6:30 P. M.; they have one half day off once a week. Girls iron napkins.

No. 3. Three girls working. Wages, $6 per week and board. Work from 6:30 A. M. to 6:30 P. M. Girls do all the cleaning.

No. 4. Twelve girls working. Hours of labor from 6:30 A. M. to 6:30 P. M. Wages average $7 a week and board.

No. 5. Three girls. Ten hours work. Wages $6 a week and board.

No. 6. Nine girls. Twelve hours work. Wages, $6 a week and board. Wash and iron napkins.

WOODEN BOX FACTORY—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Manufacturing fruit, berry, grape, and all kinds of packing boxes. Number of employés: Men, 40; women and girls, 20; boys, 30. Hours, 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.; half hour for lunch. Wages, foreman, $4 per day; machine, $3; men, $2 25 per day; boys, 75 cents to $1 50 per day; girls are paid by the piece, and average $1 50 per day; experienced women earn $2 per day. Ages of boys from 15 to 18.

No. 2. Make boxes for fruit, and all kinds of merchandise, also washboards. Number of employés: Men, 30; girls, 5; boys, 15; Chinamen, 3. Hours, 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; half hour for lunch. Wages of men from $1 50 to $2 75 per day; girls from $3 to $5 per week; boys from 75 cents to $1 25 per day, average $1. Boys are from 12 to 16 years of age. Firm connected with Towle Bros., of Placer County, where lumber comes from.

WOOLEN FACTORIES—GENERAL CONDITIONS.

No. 1. All kinds of woolen goods are manufactured in this establishment. Employés: One hundred females, 15 boys, 300 men, and 200 Chinese. Hours of labor, 7 A. M. to 12 M., and from 12:30 to 6:30 P. M. Saturday they work until 4:15 P. M. Hours employed for entire week, 63 hours 45 minutes. Rate of wages as follows:

Occupation.	Class of Worker.	Rate per Day.
Carders	First overseer	$5 00
Carders	Second overseer	3 00
Carders (white men)	Cleaners	1 50
Carders (Chinese and boys; boys, 15 to 18 years of age)	Tenders	1 00
Dressers	Overseer	4 00
Dressers (Chinese)	Tenders	1 25
Dressers (white men)	Tenders	1 75
Spoolers (white girls, 15 to 18 years of age; piece work)		1 00
Spinners	Overseer	4 00
Spinners	Second overseer	3 00
Spinners	Fixers	2 50
Spinners (white men; piece work)		2 00
Spinners (white boys, 15 to 18 years of age)		$1 to 1 25
Spinners (Chinese)		1 00
Weavers	Overseer	5 00
Loom fixers		2 50
Weavers (fancy looms; all piece work)		2 00

This is for weaving cassimeres for men's wear, and is done by both men and women. Plain goods, such as blankets, flannels, and ladies' dress goods, are done both by white and Chinese, by piece work.

No. 2. This factory is large, well lit and ventilated; sanitary conditions and surroundings very good and healthy. In cleaning and scouring wool Chinese are principally employed. In the weavingroom, the Chinese are on one side, and white girls on the other. The number of employés, and wages paid, are classified as follows:

Occupation.	Number of Employés.			Average Daily Wages.		
	Males.	Females.	Chinese.	Males.	Females.	Chinese.
Bobbin carriers	1					
Burlers		25			$0 90 to 1 00	
Carders	3	9	7	$1 50 to 1 75	90	$1 00
Drawers in			3			1 00
Dressers	1			2 50		
Dyers	4			2 00 to 2 50		
Engineer	1			5 00		
Firemen	1			2 50		
Finishers	13			1 25 to 3 00		
Fullers	1		2	3 50		1 10
Giggers			7			1 00
Laborers	1			2 00		
Loom fixers	1			3 00		
Machinist	1			3 00		
Overseers	6			4 00 to 5 00		
Packers			1			1 00
Pressers			1			1 00
Scourers	6		5	2 00		1 10
Shearers	1			2 75		
Spinners mule	6		4	1 00		80 to 90
Spoolers		5			85 to 90	
Spool carriers	1		1	1 25		90
Teamsters	1			2 50		
Watchmen	2			2 50		
Weavers		20	6		1 50	1 00
Wool sorters	3		2	2 50		1 20
Total number of workers	54	59	39			

No. 3. Employés, 40 men and 40 women. Weavers paid by piecework, and average $35 per month; lowest wages paid, 75 cents per day; burlers, 90 cents per day. Profit sharing exists here, and details are posted in the workshop. The first $24,000 of profit goes to the company; the next $4,000 is to be distributed to employés; all profits above the $28,000 go to the company; one girl said she received in this way $56 in one year. Only two girls, out of the forty employed, board; the rest live at home. Rent and fuel higher than in the East; food and clothing about the same; wood, $9 per cord. If any employé leaves without notice he loses all profit sharing.

No. 4. Number of girls, 12; ages of girls, 16 to 24; wages, 75 cents to $1 45; spooling girls get 75 cents per day. Weavers get from $1 25 to $1 45, by piece. Hours, 11 per day, or 65 per week. Boys, about 10 in number; ages, 13 to 15; work 11 hours per day; on the carding machine, boys get 75 cents per day; on the second brake and on the third, or finisher, boys get 60 cents per day, work 11 hours; boys helping around get 75 cents per day; the spinners (boys) get 18 cents for 100 runs, and average 600 or 700 runs daily, $1 10 for work of 11 hours. The dyer gets $2 50 per day; finisher, $3; second hand, $2; third and fourth, $1 75; scourers, dyers, preparers, etc., get $1 75 per day. Hours, 6 A. M. to 5 P. M. Weavers are the only ones paid by the piece; average $35 per month.

No. 5. Number of men employed, 12; women, 12. The following are the rates of wages paid: In the sorting and scouring department, males earn from $1 to $1 50 per day; females earn from $1 25 to $1 50 per day; in the carding and picking room, men get $1, $1 25, and $1 50 per day; in spinning and spooling, one man gets $2 50, and women and girls get $1 per day; in weaving department, employés are paid by the piece—women average $7 50 per week; overseer is paid $2 50 per day; dressers (women), $1 50 per day; finishers (men), $2 per day; assistant, $1 50 per day. Hours of labor, 11 hours per day.

No. 6. Number of men employed, 9; women, 8; boys, 4; and one girl; no Chinese. Wages of men, from $1 50 to $4 per day; women (piecework), from $33 to $47 per month; boys get $1 and $1 25 per day. Hours of labor, 11 hours per day. Mill is small, and well lit and ventilated, but not kept clean.

No. 7. There are about 50 women employed in the weaving department who can earn from $1 25 to $1 50 per day. It takes a girl three or four weeks to learn sufficient to earn wages. The factory buildings and grounds cover two blocks. The main building is four stories high, and has a frontage of 383 feet and a depth of 65 feet. The machine shop is complete in all its appointments. The wings are 100 feet in depth. All the work rooms are well lit and ventilated. Separate water-closets are provided for the sexes. There is room for improvement in the way of cleanliness, but this is invariably the case where a number of Chinese are employed. Access to the factory is difficult, and the surroundings are not pleasant. There are but few cottages and tenements in the neighborhood, and they are neither clean looking nor desirable. Employés complain of the shortness of time (half an hour) allowed for lunch, and say it should be extended to three quarters in order to give them time to reach their homes. Otherwise no complaint has been made against the management. As an evidence that it must be satisfactory to the employés, nearly all the foremen at present have been advanced to their present positions from the lowest grades. Employés have to pay for rent of rooms and cottages from $15 to $25 per month. In the neighborhood of eastern woolen mills they could rent the same accommodations for half that sum. Wages paid are classified as follows:

Occupation.	Class of Workers.	Rate per Day.
Weavers (white girls and boys) make from		$1 25 to $1 50
Weavers (Chinese) make from		1 to 1 25
Wool sorters	Overseer	4 00
Wool sorters (white men), piece work		2 50
Wool sorters (Chinese), day work		1 00
Wool scourers (Chinese)		1 10
Finishing Department.		
	Overseer	4 00
Shear tenders (white)		1 50
Cloth menders (girls)		1 25
Cloth burlers (girls)		90 to 1 00
Fullers	Overseer	4 00
Common help (white men)		1 50 to 1 75
Giggers		1 50
Scourers		1 50
Dyers	Overseer	7 00
Dyers	Second overseer	4 50
Help (all white men)		1 50 to 1 75
Engine Room.		
Engineer and machinist	Overseer	5 00
Ordinary machinists		3 00 to 3 50
Blacksmith		3 75
Blacksmith helper		2 00
Outdoor day laborers		1 50 to 1 75
Firemen		3 00

EXPLANATORY.

Subdivision 1, Table "A," Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3, of this Chapter, are correlative and show conditions of three different kinds of the same female wage earners.

For instance, the workingwoman No. 1, in the first Table (A), is the same person under the same number in the second Table (B), and is the same person under the same number in Subdivision 3.

So that in any line of business here enumerated, if in reading the "working" conditions of any female, you want to know the "personal and financial" or the "home" conditions of the same person, you must turn to these subdivisions and see corresponding trade and number.

TABLE A.

TABLES SHOWING "WORKING" CONDITIONS OF WORKINGWOMEN.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Closets Water	State of Health.
	Bookbinding.														
1	Forewoman	1			$12 00	$12 00	$12 00	8:00	6:00	60	Clean, bright and airy;	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Bookbinding	1			10 00	3 00	10 00	8:00	6:00	60	steam machinery	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Bookbinding	1			10 00	8 00	10 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Bookbinding	1			13 00	8 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Bookbinding	1			7 50	3 00	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Bookbinding	1			7 50	7 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Bookbinding	1			8 00	2 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
8	Bookbinding	1			8 00	3 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
9	Bookbinding	1			7 50	7 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
10	Bookbinding	1			8 00	7 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
11	Booksewing	1			9 00	3 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	Workroom on second	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
12	Booksewing	1			9 00	3 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	floors, large, well lit,	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
13	Booksewing	1			5 00	3 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	and ventilated; stairs	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
14	Booksewing	1			8 00	5 00	7 00	8:00	6:00	60	only fire escape; steam	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
15	Booksewing	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	machinery	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
16	Type ruling	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
17	Type ruling	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
	Boot and Shoemakers.														
1	Shoe fitter	1			12 00	3 00	10 50	8:00	5:30	30	Good light, well venti-	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Shoe fitter	1			3 00	2 00	3 00	8:00	5:30	30	lated; workroom on	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Shoe fitter	1			11 00	5 00	9 00	8:00	5:30	30	top floor three-story	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Shoe fitter	1			15 00	4 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30	building	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Shoe fitter	1			12 00	10 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Shoe fitter	1			12 00	4 50	10 50	7:30	5:30	30	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
7	Shoe fitter	1			11 50	3 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	30	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
8	Shoe fitter	1			5 50	2 50	4 50	7:30	5:30	30	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.

9	Shoe fitter	1			10 00	4 00	9 00	7:30	5:30	30	Large on top floor; elevator and stairs for fire escapes	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
10	Shoe fitter	1			13 00	3 50	9 00	7:30	5:30	30		Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
11	Shoe fitter	1			9 00	5 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	30		Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
12	Shoe fitter	1			8 00	5 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
13	Shoe fitter	1			16 00	8 00	10 00	7:30	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
14	Shoe fitter		1	20 to 48c doz.	12 50	3 00	11 00	7:00	5:30	45	Large, plenty of light and air; stairs only for fire escape	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
15	Shoe fitter		1	8 to 16c doz.	8 00	4 00	7 50	7:00	5:45	45		Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
16	Shoe fitter		1	20 to 32c doz.	7 00	3 00	7 00	7:00	5:30	45		Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
17	Shoe fitter		1	20 to 32c doz.	9 50	3 00	7 50	7:00	5:30	45	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
18	Shoe fitter		1	20 to 32c doz.	12 00	4 00	10 50	7:00	5:30	45	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
19	Shoe fitter		1	15c per doz.	15 00	4 00	12 00	7:00	5:30	45	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
20	Shoe fitter	1			7 50	7 50	7 50	7:00	5:30	45	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
21	Shoe fitter	1			10 00	10 00	10 00	7:30	5:45	30	Large, well lit and ventilated; fire escape bad	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Bad.
22	Shoe fitter	1			4 50	3 00	4 50	7:30	5:45	30		Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
23	Shoe fitter	1			10 00	3 00	10 00	7:30	5:45	30		Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
24	Shoe fitter	1			3 00	2 00	3 00	7:30	5:45	30	"	Good.	Yes.	Yes.	Not good.
25	Shoe finishers	1			7 00	3 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
26	Shoe finishers	1			4 50	2 00	3 50	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
27	Shoe finishers	1			6 00	4 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
28	Shoe finishers	1			6 50	4 50	6 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
29	Shoe finishers	1			6 00	4 50	5 50	7:30	5:30	30					Fair.
30	Shoe finishers	1			6 50	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
31	Shoe paster	1			13 00	6 00	9 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
32	Shoe paster	1			6 50	2 50	6 50	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
33	Shoe paster	1			7 00	5 00	6 50								Fair.
34	Shoe paster	1			7 50	6 00	7 00								Good.
35	Turner and trimmer	1			9 50	2 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
36	Turner and trimmer	1			7 00	4 00	6 00	8:30	5:30						Good.
37	Turner and trimmer	1			8 00	6 00	7 00	8:00	5:30	30					Fair.
38	Turner and trimmer	1			7 50	6 00	6 50	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
39	Sock liner	1			3 00	3 00	3 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
40	Outside stitcher	1			14 00	4 00	11 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
41	Outside stitcher	1			12 00	7 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	30					Fair.
42	Stoger		1	1½ cents	11 00	11 00	11 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
43	Stoger		1	1½ cents	12 00	9 00	10 00	7:30	5:30	30					Good.
44	Buttonhole maker	1			18 00	6 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
45	Buttonhole maker	1			26 50	5 00	10 00	7:30	4:45	30					Very poor.
46	Buttonhole maker	1			20 00	8 00	12 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
47	Buttonhole maker	1			10 00	7 00	7 00	8:00	5:30	30	Large, well lit and ventilated				Fair.
48	Buttonhole maker	1			6 00	4 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30					Good.
49	Shoe finisher										Dark, dirty, low ceiling; only two females working				Fair.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Water Closets	State of Health.
	Candymakers.														
1	Candymaking	1			$10 00	$5 00	$10 00	7:45	6:00	30	Workroom in basement;	Yes.	No.	No.	Fair.
2	Candymaking	1			10 00	5 00	10 00	7:45	6:00	30	gloomy, dark, and cold.	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Candymaking	1			10 00	5 00	10 00	7:45	6:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Candymaking	1			9 00	3 00	6 00	7:00	5:30	30	Workroom small, but	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Candymaking	1			6 00	2 00	4 00	7:00	5:30	30	well lit and ventilated.	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
6	Candymaking	1			6 00	4 00	5 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Poor.
7	Candymaking	1			5 00	3 00	4 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
	Chocolate Factory.														
1	Packing chocolate	1			6 00	5 00	6 00	7:00	5:45	45	Good light and ventila-	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Packing chocolate	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	5:45	45	tion; first floor; can	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Packing chocolate	1			6 00	4 00	6 00	7:00	5:45	45	sit or stand	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
	Cigarmakers.														
1	Strippers	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	50	Large room; well lit and	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Strippers	1			5 50	4 50	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	ventilated	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Strippers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Strippers	1			4 50	4 50	4 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Strippers	1			5 00	4 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Strippers	1			6 50	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Poor.
7	Strippers	1			5 50	4 00	5 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
8	Strippers	1			7 00	5 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
9	Strippers	1			5 50	5 00	5 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
10	Strippers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	60	Large room; bad venti-	No.	No.	No.	Good.
11	Strippers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	60	lation and drainage	No.	No.	No.	Bad.
12	Strippers	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	45	Small room, well lit; of-	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
13	Strippers	1						7:30	5:30	45	fensive odors from	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
14	Strippers	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	45	Chinese and neighbor-	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
15	Strippers	1			5 00	4 50	5 00	7:30	5:30	45	hood	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
16	Strippers	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.

17	Strippers	1			7 00	4 00	6 50	7:30	5:30	60	Large room, well lit and	Poor.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
18	Strippers	1			3 00	1 00	3 00	7:30	5:30	60	ventilated	Poor.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
19	Strippers	1			6 50	4 50	5 50	7:30	5:30	50	Large room, not well	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
20	Strippers	1			5 50	4 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	ventilated; dirty sur-	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
21	Strippers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	roundings; drainage	No.	No.	No.	Good.
22	Strippers	1			7 00	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	bad	No.	No.	No.	Bad.
23	Strippers	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
24	Strippers	1			5 50	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
25	Strippers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
1	Wrappers	1			7 00	3 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	Large room, well lit and	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
2	Wrappers	1			7 00	5 50	7 00	7:30	5:30		ventilated	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Wrappers	1			8 00	5 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	45	Large room; ventilation	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Wrappers	1			6 00	4 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	45	not good	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
5	Wrappers	1			7 00	5 50	6 50	7:30	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
6	Wrappers	1			7 50	6 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Wrappers	1			7 50	6 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
8	Wrappers	1			8 00	6 50	7 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
9	Wrappers	1			6 50	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
1	Bookers	1			6 00	3 50	6 00	7:30	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Bookers	1			4 50	2 00	4 50	7:30	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Bookers	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	7:30	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
4	Bookers	1			5 50	4 50	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	Large room; well lit and	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Bookers	1			5 00	4 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	ventilated	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Bookers	1			5 50	4 50	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
7	Bookers	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
1	Tackers	1			5 50	5 00	5 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Tackers	1			9 50	5 00	9 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
3	Tackers	1			6 00	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Tackers	1			5 50	4 50	5 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Tackers	1			7 50	6 50	7 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Tackers	1			6 50	5 50	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Tackers	1			6 00	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
1	Retouchers	1			9 00	4 00	7 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Retouchers	1			8 50	7 50	8 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Retouchers	1			8 00	7 00	7 50	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Retouchers	1			8 50	7 50	8 00	7:30	5:30	50	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time.	Work by Piece.	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages.	Lowest Weekly Wages.	Average Weekly Wages.	Begin Work At.	Close Work At.	Lunch—Minutes.	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing.	Facilities for changing Clothes.	Separate Water Closets.	State of Health.
	Cigar Box Manufacture.														
1	Forewoman	1			$10 00	$10 00	$10 00	7:30	5:00	30	Large, well lit, and ventilated	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	10 00	4 60	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	8 50	3 45	7 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	11 50	2 50	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	9 00	2 00	5 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	9 00	3 00	5 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	11 00	1 50	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
8	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	10 00	2 50	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
9	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	7 50	3 00	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
10	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	11 00	3 50	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
11	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100.	9 00	4 50	6 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
12	Boxmaking		1	70 to 95c ⅌ 100	8 50	3 50	5 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
13	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	4 00	4 00	4 00	7:30	5:00	30	Well lit and comfortable; can sit if inclined; not crowded; no Chinese	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
14	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	4 00	2 00	4 00	7:30	5:00	30		Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
15	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	5 25	2 50	4 00	7:30	5:00	30		Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
16	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	5 75	1 50	5 50	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
17	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	2 60	1 25	2 50	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
18	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	4 50	1 00	4 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
19	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	3 50	1 30	3 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
20	Trimming boxes		1	45 to 90c ⅌ 100.	5 50	2 00	5 00	7:30	5:00	30	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
21	Bookkeeper	1			7 50	7 50	7 50	8:00	4:45	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
22	Bookkeeper	1			7 00	7 00	7 00	8:00	4:45	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
	Cleaning and Dyeing.														
1	Cleaning and dyeing	1			7 00	7 00	7 00	7:00	7:00	60	Well lit, neat, and cheerful room on ground floor	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
2	Cleaning and dyeing	1			10 00	8 00	10 00	7:00	7:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
3	Cleaning and dyeing	1			8 00	8 00	8 00	7:00	7:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
4	Cleaning and dyeing	1			9 00	7 00	8 00	7:00	7:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Fair.
5	Cleaning and dyeing	1			8 50	7 50	7 50	7.00	7:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.

6	Cleaning and dyeing	1	----	----------	8 65	8 65	8 65	8:00	6:00	60	Large, cheerful work-room	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
7	Cleaning and dyeing	1	----	----------	9 00	7 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
8	Cleaning and dyeing	1	----	----------	8 50	7 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Fair.
	California Cotton Mills, Oakland.														
1	Weaving	1	----	----------	6 00	2 10	6 00	6:50	5:50	40	Large, well lit and venti-lated; very clean toilet rooms; one story; machinery, belting, etc., under workroom	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Weaving	1	----	----------	9 00	8 10	9 00	6:50	5:50	40		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Weaving	1	----	----------	12 00	3 00	9 00	6:50	5:50	40		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Weaving	1	----	----------	9 00	4 50	8 10	6:50	5:50	40		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Weaving	1	----	----------	16 00	9 40	10 00	6:50	5:50	40		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Weaving	1	----	----------	7 50	4 50	6 60	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Weaving	1	----	----------	6 60	4 00	6 60	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
8	Spinning	1	----	----------	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
9	Spinning	1	----	----------	9 00	7 50	9 00	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
10	Spinning	1	----	----------	3 60	3 60	3 60	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
11	Spinning	1	----	----------	4 50	3 60	4 50	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
12	Spooling	1	----	----------	9 00	6 00	9 00	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
13	Slugging	1	----	----------	9 00	8 50	9 00	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
14	Covering spindles	1	----	----------	6 00	3 00	6 00	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
15	Packing	1	----	----------	6 50	3 00	6 50	6:50	5:50	40	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
	Cracker Factory.														
1	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	12 50	6 00	7 50	6:30	5:30	60	Large, airy, clean; good light, and ventilation.	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
2	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	12 50	6 00	7 50	6:30	5:30	60		Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
3	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	9 00	6 00	7 50	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Fair.
4	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	7 50	3 00	7 50	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
5	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	14 10	7 50	10 50	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
6	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	12 00	7 50	7 50	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
7	Packing crackers	1	----	----------	7 50	3 00	7 50	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
8	Forewoman	1	----	----------	18 00	10 50	12 00	6:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	Poor.	Yes.	Good.
	Cloak and Shawl Makers.														
1	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	10 00	6 00	9 00	8:00	5:30	30	Workroom in basement; crowded, bad light, and ventilation	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	12 00	8 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30		Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
3	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	9 00	5 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30		Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	7 00	4 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
5	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	8 00	6 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
6	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	9 00	5 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
7	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	12 00	9 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
8	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	7 00	3 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	Under sidewalk; dark, cold, bad light	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
9	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	6 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60		Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
10	Making cloaks	1	----	----------	6 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	----------	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Closets Water	State of Health.
	Dressmakers.														
1	Dressmaking	1			$3 00	$2 00	$3 00	8:00	6:00	60	Well ventilated; not	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Dressmaking	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	crowded; on ground	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Dressmaking	1			4 00	3 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	floor; good light	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Dressmaking	1			10 00	6 00	10 00				"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Dressmaking	1			2 50	2 50	2 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Dressmaking	1			10 00	2 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
7	Dressmaking	1			7 00	4 00	7 00	8:00	6:00	60	Rooms beautifully fur-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
8	Dressmaking	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	nished; clean, well lit	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
9	Dressmaking	1						8:00	6:00	60	and ventilated; small	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
10	Dressmaking	1			9 00	5 00	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	light, pleasant				Good.
11	Dressmaking	1						8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
12	Dressmaking	1						8:00	6:00	60	Comfortable; good light.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
13	Dressmaking	1			8 00	6 00	7 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
14	Dressmaking	1			5 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	Bright, well furnished;	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
15	Dressmaking	1			6 00	3 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	clean; on second floor.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
16	Dressmaking	1			9 00	2 00	5 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
17	Dressmaking	1			3 00	3 00	3 00	8:00	6:00	60	Small, good light				
18	Dressmaking	1			3 00	3 00	3 00	8:00	6:00	60	"				
19	Dressmaking	1			15 00	12 00	12 00	8:00	6:00	60	Clean; well ventilated				
20	Dressmaking	1			9 00	2 00	5 50	8:00	6:00	60					Poor.
21	Dressmaking	1			7 00	2 50	7 00	8:00	6:00	60	Bright, cheerful; 1st floor.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
22	Dressmaking		1	$8 to $10 a dress	40 00	5 00	10 00				Works at home				
23	Dressmaking	1			8 00	5 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	Large; good light and	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
24	Dressmaking	1			8 00	3 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	ventilation; not crowd-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
25	Dressmaking	1			6 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	ed; ground floor; in	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
26	Dressmaking	1			7 00	3 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
27	Dressmaking	1			6 00	4 50	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.

	Fruit Canning and Packing.														
1	Canning	1			6 50	4 50	6 50	7:00	6:00	60	Large, well lit and ventilated; seats provided; one story; located in San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Canning	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Canning	1			9 00	4 50	9 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Canning	1			9 00	4 50	9 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Canning	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Canning	1			6 00	5 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Canning	1			9 00	6 00	9 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
8	Labeling	1			9 00	4 50	9 00	7:00	6:00	60					Good.
9	Cutting	1			6 00	5 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large, clean, well lit and ventilated; two stories; seats provided; located in San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
10	Cutting		1	7c per box	6 60	5 00	6 60	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
11	Cutting		1	7c per box	12 00	1 00	7 50	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
12	Cutting		1	7c per box				7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
13	Cutting		1	7c per box	7 50	4 50	7 50	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
14	Cutting		1	7c per box	6 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
15	Cutting		1	7c per box	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
16	Cutting		1	7c per box	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
17	Cutting	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
18	Cutting	1			8 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
19	Cutting	1			8 50	6 00	7 50	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
20	Cutting		1	9c per basket	8 00	6 50	6 50	7:00	6:00	60	Situated in a lovely spot; clean, bright, and healthy; in Santa Clara County	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Poor.
21	Cutting		1	9c per basket	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
22	Cutting		1	9c per basket	8 00	4 00	8 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
23	Packing	1			6 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
24	Packing	1			6 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
25	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large, long, well ventilated workroom; in Santa Clara County	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
26	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	7 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
27	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
28	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	9 00	6 00	9 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
29	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	7 50	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large one-story building, well lit and ventilated; in Santa Clara County	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
30	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	5 10	5 10	5 10	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
31	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	4 50	4 50	4 50	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
32	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	4 50	4 50	4 50	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
33	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
34	Cutting		1	16c per 100 lbs.	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
35	Canning	1			6 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large, well lit and ventilated; comfortable room for work; seats provided; in San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
36	Canning	1			3 60	3 60	3 60	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
37	Packing	1			6 00	3 60	4 50	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
38	Packing	1			9 00	6 00	9 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
39	Packing	1			6 00	3 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
40	Packing	1			7 50	6 00	7 50	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Water Closets	State of Health.
41	Packing	1			$3 00	$1 80	$3 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large, well lit and ventilated; comfortable room for work; seats provided; in San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
42	Packing	1			6 50	4 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
43	Packing	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
44	Cutting		1	4 to 6c per box	4 50	4 50	4 50	7:00	6:00	60		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
45	Cutting		1	6c per box	7 50	6 00	7 50	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
46	Cutting	1			6 00	4 50	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
47	Packing		1	4c per basket	8 00	5 00	6 00	6:30	5:30	30	Workroom large and well lit; not clean; drainage bad; compelled to stand; San Francisco	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
48	Packing		1	2¼c per 20 cans	8 00	5 75	5 75	6:30	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
49	Packing		1	2¼c per 20 cans	6 50	3 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
50	Packing		1	2½c per 20 cans	9 50	6 00	9 00	6:30	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
51	Packing	1			7 50	5 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
52	Packing		1	7¾c per basket	7 00	3 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
53	Forewoman	1			15 00	15 00	15 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
54	Packer		1	2¼c per 20 cans	9 00	6 00	9 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
55	Packer		1	2¼c per 20 cans	5 00	5 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
56	Packer		1	4c per basket	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
57	Packer		1	4c per basket	5 00	5 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
58	Packer	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	6:30	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
	Fruit Basket Makers.														
1	Making baskets	1			5 00	3 00	5 00	7:00	5:30	30	Long, well-lit room, on ground floor; machinery run by steam; can sit or stand	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Making baskets		1	7 cents per 100	5 65	5 50	5 50	7:00	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Making baskets		1	7 cents per 100	5 00	1 40	4 50	7:00	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
4	Making baskets		1	7 cents per 100	4 95	2 15	4 50	7:00	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Making baskets		1	7 cents per 100	6 15	1 10	5 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Making baskets		1	7 cents per 100	4 00	3 50	4 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Making baskets	1			5 00	3 00	5 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Good.
8	Making baskets	1			5 00	4 00	5 00	7:00	5:30	30	"	No.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
9	Making baskets	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	7:00	5:30	30		No.	No.	Yes.	Good.

	Glovemakers.														
1	Glovemaker	1			7 75	2 00	7 00	8:00	5:30	30	Large; good light; not crowded; on third floor; no fire escape but stairway	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Glovemaker	1			8 50	3 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30		Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Glovemaker	1			24 00	3 50	9 00	8:00	5:30	30		Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Glovemaker	1			10 50	4 00	9 00	8:00	5:30	30		Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Glovemaker	1			6 75	3 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Glovemaker	1			13 00	3 00	10 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Glovemaker	1			10 00	2 00	9 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
8	Glovemaker	1			5 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
9	Glovemaker	1			3 00	3 00	3 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
10	Glovemaker	1			7 50	5 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Good.
11	Glovemaker	1			5 00	2 00	4 50	8:00	5:30	30	"	Fair.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
12	Glovemaker		1	$1 to $1 25 doz.	5 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	5:30	60	Small, but light and pleasant	Good	No.	No.	Good.
13	Glovemaker		1	1 to 1 25 doz.	7 65	5 00	6 50	8:00	5:30	60		Good	No.	No.	Good.
14	Glovemaker		1	1 25 to 1 75 doz.	7 00	5 00	7 00	8:00			Works at home				
15	Glovemaker	1			7 75	4 00	7 50				Works at home				
16	Glovemaker	1			11 00	6 00	8 00	9:00	4:45	60	Nice, clean room	Fair.	No.		Good.
	Harness Lash Braiders.														
1	Lash braiding	1			10 00	7 50	8 00	7:30	5:30	60	Workroom large, well lighted and ventilated; not crowded	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
2	Lash braiding	1			10 00	3 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	60		Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
3	Lash braiding	1			8 00	6 00	7 50	7:30	5:30	60		Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Lash braiding	1			8 00	3 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Lash braiding	1			6 50	4 50	6 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
6	Lash braiding	1			8 50	5 50	7 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
7	Lash braiding		1		6 50	3 50	6 50	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
8	Lash braiding	1			10 50	3 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
9	Lash braiding				8 50	6 00	8 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
	Hoopskirt Factory.														
1	Making skirts	1			7 00	4 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	60	Large, well ventilated	No.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Making skirts	1			8 00	6 00	7 50	7:30	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
3	Making skirts	1			7 50	5 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Making skirts	1			7 00	4 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Making bustles		1	12½c per dozen	9 00	6 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
6	Making bustles		1	12½c per dozen	8 00	5 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.

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TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Water Closets	State of Health.
	Paper Box Manufacture.														
1	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	$10 00	$7 00	$8 00	7:45	6:00	60	Large, well lit; on top	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	12 00	3 50	10 00	7:45	6:00	60	floor of five-story	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	10 00	6 00	8 00	7:45	6:00	60	building; four stair-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	10 50	5 00	8 50	7:45	6:00	60	ways and two eleva-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	7 50	4 00	7 50	7:45	6:00	60	tors for fire escape;	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	3 50	3 00	3 50	7:45	6:00	60	can sit or stand	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	7 60	3 50	6 50	7:45	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
8	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	10 00	4 00	7 00	7:45	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
9	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	11 30	3 50	7 00	7:45	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
10	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	10 00	4 00	8 50	7:45	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
11	Paper box making	----	1	50 to $1 50 ⅌ 100	8 00	7 00	7 00	7:45	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
	Printers.														
1	Type setting	1	----	----------	4 00	2 50	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	Workroom large, well	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
2	Type setting	1	----	----------	4 00	2 50	4 00	8:00	6:00	60	lit and ventilated; sec-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
3	Type setting	1	----	----------	3 50	2 50	3 50	8:00	6:00	60	ond floor; has fire es-	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
4	Type setting	1	----	----------	7 50	2 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	capes	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
5	Type setting	1	----	----------	6 00	2 50	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
6	Type setting	1	----	----------	3 50	2 50	3 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Type setting	1	----	----------	2 50	2 50	2 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes,	Yes.	Good.
8	Type setting	1	----	----------	7 50	2 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
9	Type setting	----	1	40c 1,000 ems	9 00	1 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
10	Type setting	----	1	40c 1,000 ems	17 00	3 00	10 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
11	Canvasser	1	----	----------	8 50	8 50	8 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
12	Typesetter	----	1	25 to 30c 1,000	5 00	3 00	4 00	8:00	5:30	60	Good room but not	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
13	Typesetter	----	1	25 to 30c 1,000	5 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	5:30	60	clean; no fire escapes	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
14	Typesetter	----	1	25 to 30c 1,000	7 00	5 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	60	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
15	Typesetter	----	1	25 to 30c 1,000	6 00	5 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	60	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
16	Typesetter	----	1	25 to 30c 1,000	5 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	5:30	60	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.

17	Typesetter		1	25c 1,000 ems	6 00	3 00	6 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large room; good light	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
18	Typesetter		1	25c 1,000 ems	5 00	2 50	3 50	8:30	5:30	75	and ventilation; in	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Poor.
19	Typesetter		1	25c 1,000 ems	9 00	3 00	7 00	8:30	5:30	75	San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
20	Typesetter		1	25c 1,000 ems	7 00	6 00	7 00	8:30	5:30	75	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
21	Typesetter		1	25c 1,000 ems	9 75	2 00	6 50	8:30	5:30	75	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
22	Typesetter	1			5 50	2 00	5 50	8:00	5:30	30	Fine airy room; eight	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
23	Typesetter	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	girls working in it;	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
24	Typesetter	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	8:00	5:30	30	San José	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
25	Typesetter	1			2 00	2 00	2 00	7:30	6:00	60	Large, good light and	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
26	Typesetter	1						7:30	6:00	60	ventilation; on sec-	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Not good.
27	Typesetter	1			2 00	2 00	2 00	7:30	6:00	60	ond floor; in San José	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
28	Typesetter	1									"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
29	Typesetter	1			2 00	2 00	2 00	7:30	6:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
30	Typesetter	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	7:30	6:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
31	Type setting		1	30 to 40c 1,000	9 00	6 20	7 20	7:30	5:30	30	Large, well lit; not well	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
32	Type setting		1	30 to 40c 1,000	9 00	6 00	7 00	7:30	5:30	30	ventilated	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
33	Type setting		1	30 to 40c 1,000							"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
34	Type setting		1	30 to 40c 1,000	6 00	6 00	6 00	7:30	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
35	Type setting		1	30 to 40c 1,000	8 00	6 30	7 20	7:30	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
36	Type setting	1			3 00	3 00	3 00	8:00	5:30	60	Small, but good light	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
37	Type setting	1						8:00	5:30	45	and ventilation; not	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
38	Type setting	1			4 00	4 00	4 00	8:00	5:30	45	crowded	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
39	Type setting	1			1 00	1 00	1 00	8:00	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
40	Type setting	1			6 00	1 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
41	Type setting	1			1 00	1 00	1 00	8:00	5:30	45	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
	Saleswomen.														
1	Saleswoman	1			10 00	6 00	10 00	8:00	6:00	45	Large, well lighted and	Yes.			Good.
2	Saleswoman	1			8 00	8 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	30	ventilated	Yes.			Good.
3	Saleswoman	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	Sunny and airy	Yes.			
4	Saleswoman	1			5 85	5 85	5 85	8:00	9:00	60	Pleasant	Yes.			Good.
5	Saleswoman	1			8 00	8 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	30	Large, good light and	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
6	Saleswoman	1			7 00	7 00	7 00	8:00	6:00	30	ventilation	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
7	Saleswoman	1			10 00	10 00	10 00	8:00	6:00	30	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Fair.
8	Saleswoman	1			9 00	9 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	30	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Good.
	Shirtmakers.														
1	Shirtmaker		1	$2 40 per doz.	5 50	2 00	5 50	8:00	5:30	30	Good light, pleasant, not	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
2	Shirtmaker		1	2 40 per doz.	9 00	2 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30	crowded; sewing ma-	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
3	Shirtmaker		1	2 40 per doz.	10 25	5 50	8 50	8:00	5:30	30	chines run by steam;	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
4	Shirtmaker		1	1 12½ per doz.	7 50	2 50	6 50	8:00	5:30	30	stairs the only fire es-	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.
5	Shirtmaker		1	2 50 per doz.	6 00	4 00	5 50	8:00	5:30	30	cape; on third floor	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Good.

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TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time	Work by Piece	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages	Lowest Weekly Wages	Average Weekly Wages	Begin Work At	Close Work At	Lunch—Minutes	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing	Facilities for changing Clothes	Separate Closets Water	State of Health.
6	Shirtmaker		1	$1 10 to 1 75 doz.	$11 00	$3 50	$7 00	8:00	5:30	30	Large, well lit, top floor	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
7	Shirtmaker		1	75 to 90c doz.	7 00	3 50	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	of 3-story building;	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
8	Shirtmaker		1	75c to $1 50 doz.	8 00	3 50	7 00	8:00	5:30	30	not crowded; elevator	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
9	Shirtmaker				5 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	5:30	30	and stairs only fire	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
10	Shirtmaker		1	60c to $1 50 doz.	8 50	4 00	6 00	8:00	5:30	30	escape; machinery	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
11	Shirtmaker		1	75 to 90c doz.	7 00	3 50	6 50	8:00	5:30	30	run by electricity	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
12	Shirtmaker		1	60c to $1 50 doz.	8 50	4 00	6 00		5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
13	Shirtmaker		1	65c to $1 85 doz.	7 75	2 25	4 00	8:00	5:30	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
14	Shirtmaker		1	60c to $1 50 doz.	9 00	2 00	8 00	8:00	5:30	30	Good room and light	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
15	Shirtmaker		1	60c to $1 50 doz.	8 00	2 00	8 00	8:00			"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
16	Shirtmaker		1	50c doz. pieces.	4 00	2 00	4 00				Works at home				
17	Shirtmaker		1	75c doz. pieces.	6 00	4 00	5 00				"				
	Suspender Makers.														
1	Making suspenders	1			9 50	5 00	7 75	8:30	5:00	60	Good sized room, good	Yes.	No.	No.	Fair.
2	Making suspenders	1			8 00	2 00	7 00	8:30	5:00	60	light, and ventilation	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Making suspenders	1						8:30	5:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Making suspenders	1			8 00	6 00	8 00	8:30	5:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Making suspenders	1			9 00	6 50	8 00	8:30	5:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Fair.
	Tailoring.														
1	Tailoring		1		8 00	6 00	8 00	7:00	5:30	30	Good light and ventila-	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
2	Tailoring		1		7 00	6 00	7 00	7:00	5:30	30	tion; room crowded;	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Poor.
3	Tailoring		1		3 50	2 00	3 00	7:00	5:30	30	elevator and stairs	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
4	Tailoring		1		8 00	6 00	8 00	7:00	5:30	30	only fire escape; on	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Good.
5	Tailoring		1		6 00	5 00	6 00	7:00	5:30	30	fifth floor	Poor.	No.	Yes.	Fair.
6	Tailoring		1		5 00	2 50	5 00	8:00	6:00	30	Large, good light, not	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
7	Tailoring		1		4 00	3 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	30	crowded; stairs for	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
8	Tailoring		1		5 00	3 50	5 00	8:00	6:00	30	fire escape	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
9	Tailoring		1		6 00	4 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
10	Tailoring		1		6 00	3 00	4 00	8:00	6:00	30	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.

11	Tailoring		1		3 00	1 50	3 00	8:00	6:00	30	Well lighted; on ground	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
12	Tailoring		1		3 00	1 50	3 00	8:00	6:00	30	floor; badly ventilated	No.	No.	No.	Good.
13	Tailoring		1		4 00	2 00	3 00	8:00	6:00	30	"	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
14	Tailoring		1		4 00	3 00	3 50	8:00	6:00	30	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
15	Tailoring		1		9 00	7 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	45	Basement lit through	Yes.	Poor.	No.	Good.
16	Tailoring		1		8 00	6 00	7 00	8:00	6:00	45	glass in pavement;	Yes.	Poor.	No.	Good.
17	Tailoring		1		7 00	5 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	45	ventilation through	Yes.	Poor.	No.	Fair.
18	Tailoring		1		6 50	5 50	5 50	8:00	6:00	45	elevator	Yes.	Poor.	No.	Good.
19	Tailoring		1		9 00	1 50	9 00	7:00	6:00	60	Small, well lighted;	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
20	Tailoring		1		9 00	3 00	9 00	7:00	6:00	60	first floor	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
21	Tailoring		1		10 00	4 00	10 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
	Trunk and Valise Makers.														
1	Lining trunks	1			7 00	3 50	6 00	7:00	5:30	60	Large, well lit, clean	No.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Lining trunks	1			6 00	3 00	6 00	7:00	5:30	60	workroom	No.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Making valises	1			3 00	2 00	3 00	7:00	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Making satchels	1			7 00	2 50	7 00	7:00	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Making satchels	1			7 50	4 00	7 00	7:00	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Fair.
6	Making satchels	1			7 00	3 00	7 00	7:00	5:30	60	"	No.	No.	No.	Good.
	Upholstering.														
1	Upholstering	1			9 00	6 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	Workroom a large base-	Poor.	No.	No.	Very good.
2	Sewing carpets	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	8:00	6:00	60	ment; light from sky-	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Sewing carpets	1			9 00	6 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	light in pavement;	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Sewing carpets	1			9 00	5 00	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	bad ventilation, and	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Draping	1			15 00	12 00	12 00	8:00	6:00	60	cold	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
6	Draping	1			9 00	7 50	9 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
7	Draping	1			12 00	12 00	12 00	8:00	5:00	60	Workroom large; good	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
8	Draping	1			12 00	12 00	12 00	8:00	5:00	60	light	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
9	Draping	1			9 00	6 00	9 00	8:00	5:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Fair.
10	Draping	1			12 00	12 00	12 00	8:00	5:00	60	"	Poor.	No.	No.	Good.
	Umbrella Makers.														
1	Making umbrellas	1			7 50	3 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	Workroom well lighted	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
2	Making umbrellas	1			8 00	4 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	and ventilated on	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
3	Making umbrellas	1			8 00	3 00	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	ground floor; not	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
4	Making umbrellas	1			8 00	5 00	5 00	8:00	6:00	60	crowded	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
5	Making umbrellas	1			8 50	5 50	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Fair.
6	Making umbrellas	1			8 00	6 00	8 00	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.
7	Making umbrellas	1			7 50	4 00	7 50	8:00	6:00	60	"	Yes.	No.	No.	Good.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE A—Continued.

Number	Occupation.	Work by Time.	Work by Piece.	Price per Piece.	Highest Weekly Wages.	Lowest Weekly Wages.	Average Weekly Wages.	Begin Work At.	Close Work At.	Lunch—Minutes.	Condition of Workroom. Sanitary, etc.	Facilities for Washing.	Facilities for changing Clothes.	Separate Water Closets.	State of Health.
	Winery, San José.														
1	Labeling and pack'g	1	----	----------	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00	7:00	6:00	60	Large, bright, cheerful	------	------	------	------ Good.
2	Labeling and pack'g	1	----	----------	4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	------	------	------	------ Good.
3	Labeling and pack'g	1	----	----------	4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	------	------	------	------ Good.
4	Labeling and pack'g	1	----	----------	4 00	4 00	4 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	------	------	------	------
5	Type writing	1	----	----------	10 00	10 00	10 00	7:00	6:00	60	"	------	------	------	------
	Golden Gate Woolen Mills, San Francisco.														
1	Carding	1	----	----------	3 60	3 60	$3 60	6:30	6:45	45	Large, well lighted and ventilated; Chinese work in same room, and sometimes in close proximity	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Good.
2	Carding	1	----	----------	3 60	3 60	3 60	6:30	6:45	45		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Good.
3	Carding	1	----	----------	3 90	3 90	3 90	6:30	6:45	45		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Good.
4	Carding	1	----	----------	4 70	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:45	45		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Good.
5	Carding	1	----	----------	3 60	3 60	3 60	6:30	6:45	45		Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Fair.
6	Carding	1	----	----------	3 90	3 90	3 90	6:30	6:45	45	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	------ Good.
	Woolen Mills, San José.														
1	Weaving	----	1	$1 50 per piece	12 00	8 00	10 00	6:30	6:15	45	Well lit and ventilated; three stories; wooden fire escapes and wooden stairways; not large enough	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
2	Weaving	----	1	1 50 per piece	11 00	8 00	10 00	6:30	6:15	45		Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
3	Weaving	----	1	1 50 per piece	12 00	8 00	10 00	6:30	6:15	45		Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
4	Weaving	----	1	1 50 per piece	10 00	10 00	10 00	6:30	6:15	45		Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
5	Weaving	----	1	1 50 per piece	10 00	8 00	10 00	6:30	6:15	45		Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
6	Burling	1	----	----------	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Bad.
7	Burling	1	----	----------	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Bad.
8	Burling	1	----	----------	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
9	Burling	1	----	----------	6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
10	Spooling	1	----	----------	4 50	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
11	Spooling	1	----	----------	4 80	4 80	4 80	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Poor.
12	Spooling	1	----	----------	4 50	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.
13	Spooling	1	----	----------	4 50	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	------ Good.

14	Spooling	1			4 50	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
15	Spooling	1			4 50	4 50	4 50	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
16	Drawing frame	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.
17	Finisher	1			6 00	6 00	6 00	6:30	6:15	45	"	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Good.

NOTE.—For "personal and financial" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 2, Table "B," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B.

TABLE SHOWING PERSONAL AND FINANCIAL CONDITIONS OF WORKINGWOMEN.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work.	Single	Married	Widow	Live At.				Weekly.		Financial Results of Past Year.				Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
							Home	Boarding House	Lodging House	Private Family	Room Rent	Board	Expenses for Room and Board	Clothing Expense	Total Actual Expense	Savings		
	Bookbinding.																	
1	California	25	14	1			1								$600 00	0	Germany	Germany.
2	Louisiana	27	12	1			1						$260 00	$135 00	421 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
3	Louisiana	24	12	1						1	$1 00	$3 00	260 00		440 00		Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	22	14	1			1				1 00	3 00					Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	20	17	1			1				1 00	3 00	280 00	120 00	364 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
6	Dist. of Columbia	20	18	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
7	New York	19	13	1			1									0	Ireland	Ireland.
8	Australia	28	17	1			1						360 00	128 00	504 00	0	Germany	England.
9	California	21	16	1			1				1 00	3 00	210 00	130 00	480 00	0	England	New York.
10	California	22	17	1			1				1 00	3 00	208 00	120 00	450 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
11	California	20	16	1			1										Rhode Island	Ireland.
12	England	19	15	1			1							368 00	468 00	0	England	Ireland.
13	Dist. of Columbia	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
14	Germany	19	16	1			1						156 00	169 00	364 00	0	California	New Jersey.
15	Nevada	18	16	1			1								260 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
16	California	16	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	California	17	16	1			1										England	Ireland.
	Boot and Shoemakers, San Francisco.																	
1	California	28	16		1		1						260 00		504 00		Ireland	Scotland.
2	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
3	New York	19	17	1			1										Sweden	Ireland.
4	San Francisco	19	15	1			1									0	Ireland	Massachusetts.
5	California	23	17	1			1						208 00			0	Germany	Germany.
6	Massachusetts	24	15	1			1				4 00				575 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.

7	Ireland	23	19	1			1						208 00	142 00	384 00		Ireland	Ireland.
8	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	California	21	17	1			1						260 00	169 00	459 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
10	Maine	21	15	1			1						416 00	53 00		$15 00	Ireland	Ireland.
11	Massachusetts	18	16	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
12	San Francisco	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
13	Massachusetts			1			1						260 00				Ireland	Ireland.
14	California	22	17	1						1			182 00	280 00	562 00	50 00	Scotland	Scotland.
15	Maine	30	22			1			1		1 00	2 40	250 00			0	Maine	Maine.
16	Illinois	18	16	1						1			182 00	150 00	357 00	0	Ireland	England.
17	California	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
18	California	30	15			1	1										Ohio	Massachusetts.
19	California	20	14	1						1*							New Hampshire	New York.
20	California	19	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
21	California	20	15	1			1						260 00	200 00	510 00	0	New York	Ireland.
22	California	16	15	1			1										Italy	Scotland.
23	California	20	13										260 00	235 00	520 00	0	Germany	Germany.
24	California	16	14	1			1										New York	New York.
25	California	18	15	1			1										New York	New York.
26	New York	17	17	1			1										New York	New York.
27	New York	23	20	1			1							260 00	312 00	0	Germany	Germany.
28	California	18	15	1									250 00	100 00	400 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
29	Massachusetts	22	16	1			1						200 00	140 00	390 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
30	San Francisco	19	15	1			1									0	Germany	Germany.
31	California	20	16	1			1						185 00	120 00	380 00	0	Germany	Germany.
32	California	18	15	1													Germany	Germany.
33	Massachusetts	25		1			1						260 00	187 00	409 00	50 00	Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
34	California	18	15	1			1									0	New York	New York.
35	San Francisco	19	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
36	California	20	17	1													Ireland	Ireland.
37	San Francisco	18	14	1			1						250 00	140 00	400 00	0	New Brunswick	New Brunswick.
38	California	19	16	1			1									0	New York	New York.
39	New York	22	17	1			1									0	Germany	Germany.
40	Maine	26	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
41	San Francisco	18	16	1			1										Ireland	New York.
42	San Francisco	22		1													Ireland	Ireland.
43	Massachusetts	24	15	1									220 00	140 00	380 00	0	Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
44	San Francisco	21	16	1			1						260 00				Ireland	Ireland.
45	Pennsylvania	22	15	1			1									0	Scotland	Pennsylvania.
46	California	18	15	1			1									0	New York	New York.
47	Massachusetts	24	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
48	California	18	17	1			1										New Brunswick	New Brunswick.
49	San Francisco			1													New York	New York.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work	Single	Married	Widow	Live At. Home	Live At. Boarding House	Live At. Lodging House	Live At. Private Family	Weekly. Room Rent	Weekly. Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
	Candymakers.																	
1	California	17	14	1			1										Louisiana	Louisiana.
2	California	20	17	1			1										England	England.
3	California	19	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	18	16	1			1								$400 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
5	New York	19	14	1			1								360 00	0	New York	New York.
6	Ireland	18	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
7	Massachusetts	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Massachusetts.
	Chocolate Factory.																	
1	California	23	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
2	Italy	24	11		1												Italy	Italy.
3	California	21	16	1													Ireland	New York.
	Cigarmakers, San Francisco.																	
1	California	14	13	1			1										Spain	California.
2	California	24	9			1	1							$100 00	260 00	0	California	California.
3	San Francisco	17	16	1			1							115 00	260 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	19	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	20	15	1			1						$156 00	169 00	240 00	0	Germany	Germany.
6	California	19	16	1			1							158 00	240 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
7	California	17	15	1			1						156 00	100 00	286 00	0	Ireland	Massachusetts.
8	California	25	12	1			1						208 00	108 00	364 00	0	New York	Ireland.
9	New York	19	16	1			1							156 00	286 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
10	San Francisco	15	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
11	San Francisco	18	15	1			1						130 00	110 00	260 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
12	San Francisco	16	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
13	California	18	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
14	San Francisco	14	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
15	Ireland	49	20		1		1						160 00	100 00	250 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.

16	California	16	12	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	Wisconsin	18	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
18	Ohio	15	13	1			1						200 00	150 00	240 00	0	Germany	Germany.
19	California	18	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
20	California	17	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
21	California	19	14	1			1										New York	New York.
22	Ireland	23	17		1					1			150 00	100 00	280 00	0	Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
23	California	18	13	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
24	New York	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
25	California	19	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
26	California	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
27	Pennsylvania	23	16		1					1			120 00	100 00	399 00	0	Ireland	Pennsylvania.
28	Massachusetts	21	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
29	Mississippi	18	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
30	California	19	13	1									160 00	110 00	280 00	0	Germany	Germany.
31	New York	20	14	1													Germany	Germany.
32	California	24	15		1												New York	New York.
33	California	18	15	1													Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
34	California	19	14	1									180 00	140 00	260 00	0	Germany	Germany.
35	California	30	15	1			1						208 00		312 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
36	California	19	16	1			1										Australia	Ireland.
37	San Francisco	14	12	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
38	New York	20	15	1						1			150 00	100 00	240 00	0	New York	New York.
39	California	22	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
40	California	18	13	1			1										Massachusetts	England.
41	California	19	15	1			1										England	England.
42	California	21	18	1			1							100 00	409 00	0	Australia	Massachusetts.
43	San Francisco	20	12	1			1								468 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
44	California	18	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
45	San Francisco	21	18	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
46	New York																Germany	Germany.
47	California																New York	Massachusetts.
48	California																Germany	Germany.
49	England	21	15	1			1								390 00	0	England	England.
50	Scotland	23	12	1			1						156 00	124 00	416 00	0	Scotland	Scotland.
51	New York	22	14	1						1							Massachusetts	New York.
52	New York	20	13	1			1						200 00	140 00	300 00	0	New York	Maine.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number.	Birthplace.	Present Age.	Age When Began to Work.	Single.	Married.	Widow.	Live At. Home.	Live At. Boarding House.	Live At. Lodging House.	Live At. Private Family.	Weekly. Room Rent.	Weekly. Board.	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board.	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense.	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense.	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings.	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
	Cigar Box Makers.																	
1	Ireland	35	11	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
2	San Francisco	23	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
3	California	19	16	1			1										England	Ireland.
4	California	21	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	22	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
6	Michigan	20	15	1			1										Canada	Canada.
7	California	24	14	1			1										Scotland	England.
8	California	21	16	1			1										Europe	Europe.
9	Italy	20	14	1			1										Italy	Italy.
10	Mississippi	36				1	1										Germany	Germany.
11	California	19	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
12	Italy	20	16	1			1										Italy	Italy.
13	New York	20	16	1			1										Scotland	France.
14	California	17	14	1			1										Dist. of Columbia	Ireland.
15	California	20	17	1			1										Ireland	France.
16	New York	19	16	1			1										England	England.
17	Scotland	17	16				1										Scotland	Nebraska.
18	California	15	14	1			1										Ireland	England.
19	California	14	13	1			1										Germany	Germany.
20	California	18	16	1			1										Germany	England.
21	Iowa	25	18		1		1							$260 00	$390 00	$390 00	Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania.
22	California	19	16	1			1									0	Maine	Louisiana.
	Cleaning and Dyeing.																	
1	Scotland	18	16	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
2	Ireland	28	22	1						1	$1 50	$4 00	$286 00	142 00	460 00	60 00	Ireland	Ireland.
3	Ireland	24	21	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
4	England	20	16	1			1										England	England.
5	New York	18	15	1			1										Ireland	New York.
6	Pennsylvania	34	15	1			1							100 00	450 00		England	England.

7	Massachusetts	25	17	1												Ireland		Ireland.
8	Ireland	19	15	1												Ireland		Ireland.
	California Cotton Mills, Oakland.																	
1	California	17	14	1			1									Ireland		Portugal.
2	New York	18	13	1			1									Poland		Poland.
3	California	21	16	1			1									Germany		Germany.
4	Italy	19	14	1			1									Italy		Italy.
5	California	19	16	1			1							340 00	180 00	Ireland		Ireland.
6	California	13	10	1			1									Germany		Germany.
7	California	22	13	1			1							343 00	0	Germany		Germany.
8	Connecticut	56	16			1	1							300 00	0	Ohio		Connecticut.
9	Massachusetts	37	16	1						1		3 50	182 00	384 00	75 00	Ireland		Ireland.
10	California	15	13	1			1									Massachusetts		Massachusetts.
11	California	18	15	1			1									Massachusetts		Ireland.
12	Texas	19	16	1			1							100 00	210 00	240 00	Minnesota	Minnesota.
13	England	29	9	1						1		3 50	182 00	121 00	324 00	144 00	England	England.
14	California	19	15	1			1										Italy	Italy.
15	Indiana	40	38		1		1								325 00		Germany	Germany.
	Cracker Factory.																	
1	New York	18	16	1			1									Ireland		Ireland.
2	California	17	15	1			1									Ireland		Ireland.
3	California	18	17			1							260 00		410 00	0	England	California.
4	California	14	12	1			1										Italy	Italy.
5	Missouri	32	28		1										550 00	0	England	England.
6	Connecticut	19	14	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
7	California	22	20		1											0	Scotland	Pennsylvania.
8	New York	24	18	1							2 00	3 00	312 00		604 00	0	England	New York.
	Cloak and Shawl Makers.																	
1	California	19	15	1			1										New York	New York.
2	California	22	16	1			1								390 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
3	New York	23	15	1			1							100 00	460 00	0	Ireland	New York.
4	Massachusetts	20	17	1			1								400 00	0	New York	Massachusetts.
5	Ireland	25	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	18	15	1			1										New York	New York.
7	California	24	16	1			1								380 00	0	Ireland	Scotland.
8	California	19	15	1			1										New York	England.
9	California	18	16	1					1			3 00	160 00	75 00	340 00	0	Ireland	Massachusetts.
10	New York	20	15	1			1										Ireland	New York.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work	Single	Married	Widow	Live At. Home	Live At. Boarding House	Live At. Lodging House	Live At. Private Family	Weekly. Room Rent	Weekly. Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
	Dressmakers.																	
1	California	17	16	1			1										England	England.
2	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
3	California	19	16	1			1										New York	New York.
4	Massachusetts	54	17			1	1								$720 00	0	New York	New York.
5	Scotland	18	17	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
6	California	20	15	1			1								264 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
7	New York	20	15	1						1		$3 50	$182 00	$169 00	364 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
8	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	California	21	21	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
10	California	19	16	1													Ireland	Ireland.
11	California	16	16	1			1										New York	New York.
12	California	21	18	1			1										New York	New Brunswick.
13	Ireland	18	17	1					1			3 50	172 00		364 00		Ireland	Ireland.
14	California	15	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
15	California	14	13	1			1										Germany	Germany.
16	California	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	California	24	20	1						1						0		
18	California	16	16	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
19	California	29	15	1						1							Ireland	Ireland.
20	Virginia	54	52			1				1			168 00	68 00	270 00	$50 00	Virginia	Virginia.
21	California	21	18	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
22	New York	44	30		1		1										New York	New York.
23	California	26	16	1						1					356 00	60 00	Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
24	California	21	16		1		1										Scotland	Canada.
25	California	25	24	1			1										Tennessee	Ohio.
26	California	22	18	1			1					4 00	208 00	96 00	312 00		Ireland	Ireland.
27	California	19	16	1			1										New York	New York.

	Fruit Canning and Packing.																	
1	Pennsylvania	32	22		1		1									Wisconsin		New York.
2	Missouri	31	28		1		1									Missouri		Ireland.
3	England	29	16		1		1								0	England		England.
4	New York	25	10		1		1							569 00	45 00	New York		New York.
5	California	18	14	1			1									New York		New York.
6	Michigan	23	12	1						1		212 00				New York		New York.
7	California	20	17	1			1					106 00	200 00	318 00	150 00	Germany		Wisconsin.
8	California	22	16	1			1							468 00		Chili		Mexico.
9	Iowa	18	15	1			1									Iowa		Indiana.
10	Ohio	65	55			1	1				2 40				0	Ohio		Pennsylvania.
11	Canada	40	13		1		1								195 00	Scotland		England.
12	California	19	12	1			1									Mexico		Mexico.
13	California	14	10	1			1									Germany		Germany.
14	Illinois	17	12	1			1									Illinois		Illinois.
15	Illinois	17	15	1			1									Illinois		Illinois.
16	Missouri	17		1			1									Ohio		Ohio.
17	Ireland	40	16			1	1							208 00		Ireland		Ireland.
18	Wisconsin	20	18	1			1									Norway		Norway.
19	Missouri	20	18	1			1									Georgia		Tennessee.
20	Wisconsin	32	16			1				1		3 00	216 00			Rhode Island		Rhode Island.
21	Indiana	32	15		1		1									New York		Rhode Island.
22	California	25	25	1			1									England		England.
23	California	24	24	1			1									New York		Massachusetts.
24	Germany	36	16		1		1									Germany		Germany.
25	Illinois	44	30			1	1									Illinois		Illinois.
26	New York	18	15	1			1									Ireland		Ireland.
27	California	19	19	1			1									Maryland		Maryland.
28	Indiana	34	18		1		1									New York		New York.
29	Wisconsin	21	18	1			1									Maine		Massachusetts.
30	California	14	14	1			1									Illinois		Illinois.
31	Nova Scotia	71				1	1									Nova Scotia		Nova Scotia.
32	California	14	14	1			1									England		England.
33	Iowa	16	15				1									Ireland		Ireland.
34	Missouri	43	43		1		1									Pennsylvania		Indiana.
35	Iowa	32	15			1	1									England		Scotland.
36	Missouri	18	16	1						1	1 00	3 00				Virginia		Virginia.
37	California	16	15	1			1									Ireland		Ireland.
38	Ohio	40	14		1		1									Ohio		Ohio.
39	California	13	13				1									Ohio		Ohio.
40	California	26	17	1			1							257 00	30 00	New York		New York.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number.	Birthplace.	Present Age.	Age When Began to Work.	Single.	Married.	Widow.	Live At.				Weekly.		Financial Results of Past Year.				Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
							Home.	Boarding House.	Lodging House.	Private Family.	Room Rent.	Board.	Expense for Room and Board.	Clothing Expense.	Total Actual Expense.	Savings.		
41	Ireland	52	39			1	1								$206 00		Ireland	Ireland.
42	Ohio	49	16		1		1										Ohio	Ohio.
43	California	23	9		1		1								286 00	$50 00	Chili	Chili.
44	California	14	14	1			1										Indiana	Indiana.
45	Massachusetts	21	12	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
46	California	16	14	1						1			$216 00			0	Georgia	Illinois.
47	Italy	27	20		1												Italy	Italy.
48		50	40			1	1											
49	Virginia	64	56			1	1										Pennsylvania	Virginia.
50	New York	45	16			1	1							$36 00	300 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
51	San Francisco	17	12	1			1							60 00	100 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
52	Virginia	52	17			1			1		$1 00			30 00	172 00	0	Virginia	Virginia.
53	New York	39	14		1												Ireland	Ireland.
54	Italy	28	15		1		1							36 00	320 00	0	Italy	Italy.
55	Italy	27	16		1		1								160 00	0	Italy	Italy.
56	Italy	34	15		1						1 00				208 00		Italy	Italy.
57	Virginia					1	1				1 00		142 00	30 00	342 00		Virginia	Virginia.
58	California			1			1							60 00				
	Fruit Basket Makers.																	
1	California	18	18	1			1										Scotland	Ireland.
2	Kansas	15	13	1			1										Germany	Germany.
3	Europe	15	14	1			1										Europe	Europe.
4	California	15	14	1					1								New York	California.
5	California	15	13	1													Delaware	England.
6	California	16	15	1			1										Michigan	Ireland.
7	Missouri	17		1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
8	California	18	15	1			1										Germany	Germany.
9	New York	19	16	1			1										New York	New York.

	Glovemakers.																	
1	New Jersey	20	17	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
2	California	17	14	1			1										Germany	Tennessee.
3	California	28	18				1									0	Scotland	Tennessee.
4	California	23	18	1			1						260 00	169 00	520 00	0	New York	Ireland.
5	California	22	16	1			1					3 00	156 00	156 00	312 00		Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	20	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
7	New York	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
8	California	21	14	1			1										Norway	Ireland.
9	Kentucky	15	15	1			1										Delaware	Maryland.
10	California	19	16	1						1						0	Ireland	Ireland.
11	California	19	14	1			1										Rhode Island	Pennsylvania.
12	California	25	25			1	1										Ireland	Ireland.
13	California	17	16	1			1										New York	New York.
14	Ireland	29	19		1		1							132 00	264 00	110 00	Ireland	Ireland.
15	California	17	14	1													Rhode Island	Rhode Island.
16	California	19	14	1													Italy	Italy.
	Harness-Lash Braiders.																	
1	California	29	15		1		1				1 00	3 00	208 00	100 00	400 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
2	California	24	16	1			1							280 00	360 00	0	Maine	Massachusetts.
3	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	England.
4	California	17	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	16	15	1			1										Scotland	England.
6	Canada	18	14	1			1										England	England.
7	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	England.
8	Nevada	28	15	1			1										Wales	Wales.
9	California	17	13	1			1										Illinois	Ohio.
	Hoop Skirt Factory.																	
1	California	19	16	1			1										New York	New York.
2	California	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
3	New York	22	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	18	15	1			1										England	Scotland.
5	Indiana	22	16			1								82 00	241 00	0	Germany	Indiana.
6	Massachusetts	20	17	1				1			1 00	3 00		90 00	350 00	0	New York	Maine.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work.	Single	Married	Widow	Live At. Home	Live At. Boarding House	Live At. Lodging House	Live At. Private Family	Weekly. Room Rent	Weekly. Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
	Japanning and Tinwork.																	
1	New York	21	17	1			1							$134 00	$234 00	0	Massachusetts	Ireland.
2	California	17	15	1									$156 00	100 00	260 00	0	Germany	Germany.
3	California	19	15	1			1						208 00	52 00	260 00		New York	New York.
4	California	18	14	1						1		$3 00	182 00	42 00	234 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	New York.
6	California	23	19		1		1						169 00		338 00	0	New York	New York.
7	California	18	15	1													Ireland	Massachusetts.
8	Massachusetts	19	16	1													New York	England.
	California Jute Mills, Oakland.																	
1	Azores	19	14	1			1										Azores	Azores.
2	California	22	12	1			1										Germany	New York.
3	Scotland	24	13	1			1										Ireland	Scotland.
4	Scotland	27	13		1		1								280 00	$240 00	Scotland	Scotland.
5	Massachusetts	17	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
6	Germany	18	14	1			1										Germany	Germany.
7	England	25	7	1			1										Scotland	Ireland.
8	Scotland	29	15		1		1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	California	21	15	1			1							$165 00	330 00	180 00	England	England.
10	California	19	14	1											410 00	100 00	Germany	Germany.
11	Ireland	16	13	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
12	West Indies	14	13	1			1										United States	West Indies.
13		15	15	1			1											
14	California	16	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
15	California	11	11	1			1										Pennsylvania	South Carolina.
16	California	12	11	1			1										Germany	Germany.
17	Missouri	19	18	1													Ireland	Ireland.

	Lithographers.																	
1	California	20	19	1			1									New York		New York.
2	California	20	18	1			1									Germany		New York.
3	California	19	16	1			1									Germany		Germany.
4	England	20	15	1			1									England		England.
5	Massachusetts	22	16	1			1					3 00	156 00	166 80	364 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	16	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
7	Illinois	23	19	1						1			130 00	112 00	282 00	30 00	Ohio	Illinois.
	Laundries.																	
1	California	29	17		1				1			3 00			572 00	0	France	France.
2	France	22	15	1			1										France	France.
3	France	29	15		1				1			3 00			468 00	0	France	France.
4	France	18	16	1											171 00	144 00	France	France.
5	France	17	16	1						1							France	France.
6	France	38	16		1					1						0	France	France.
7	France	27	16		1		1									0	France	France.
8	France	25	16		1		1									0	France	France.
	Milliners.																	
1	California	15	15	1			1										Germany	Germany.
2	California	16	16	1			1										Germany	Massachusetts.
3	California	22	18	1			1							300 00		0	Germany	Germany.
4	Pennsylvania	15	15	1				1									United States	Germany.
5	California	16	16	1			1										Germany	Germany.
6	California	18	14	1			1										New York	New York.
7	California	19	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
8	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	New York	19	14	1			1										New York	Massachusetts.
10	California	20	16	1			1							280 00		0	Ireland	Ireland.
11	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	New York.
12	Massachusetts	19	16	1			1										New York	Massachusetts.
	Paper Box Manufacturers.																	
1	San Francisco	23	15		1		1						312 00		416 00	0	Massachusetts	New York.
2	New York	23	15	1			1				1 00						Ireland	New York.
3	England	35	14			1	1								408 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	17	15	1			1										Germany	Germany.
5	California	17	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Ireland.
6	Massachusetts	17	17	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age.	Age When Began to Work.	Single.	Married.	Widow.	Live At. Home.	Live At. Boarding House.	Live At. Lodging House.	Live At. Private Family.	Weekly. Room Rent.	Weekly. Board.	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board.	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense.	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense.	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings.	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
7	California	16	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
8	New York	19	16	1			1								$364 00	0	France	New York.
9	California	18	15	1			1										Ireland	Connecticut.
10	California	16	14	1			1										England	New Jersey.
11	Massachusetts	19	14	1			1										Germany	Ireland.
	Printers.																	
1	California	16	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Virginia.
2	California	16	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Virginia.
3	California	18	17	1			1										New York	New York.
4	California	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	16	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	17	16	1			1										England	England.
7	California	18	16	1			1										New York	New York.
8	California	18	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	England	20	18	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
10	Nevada	20	16	1						1	$1 00	$4 00	$260 00	$135 00	445 00	$75 00	Ireland	Ireland.
11	California	17	17	1			1										California	California.
12	California	16	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Ireland.
13	California	15		1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
14	California	18	16	1						1		3 00	156 00			0	Ireland	Ireland.
15	California	18	16	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
16	California	16	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	Missouri	21	20		1												New York	Iowa.
18	California	18	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
19	Indiana	24	20	1			1										Indiana	Indiana.
20	California	23	19	1			1										Illinois	Illinois.
21	California	23	19	1			1										New York	Massachusetts.
22	California	20½	20	1			1						300 00	300 00		0	Ohio	New York.
23	California	20	19	1					1		1 25	3 00	91 00	312 00			Ohio	Iowa.

24	California	19	17	1			1										England	Scotland.
25	Minnesota	22	17	1						1	1 85	2 00	200 00				Minnesota	Minnesota.
26	Iowa	19	19	1			1										Iowa	Ireland.
27	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	Illinois.
28	California	20	19	1			1										Ohio	Ireland.
29	California	17	16	1			1										Oregon	Oregon.
30	California	18	14	1			1										New York	New York.
31	California	23	19	1			1								325 00	75 00	Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
32	California	18	16	1			1										Scotland	Nova Scotia.
33	California	19	19	1			1										Maine	Ireland.
34	California	18	18	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
35	California	17	16	1			1										New York	England.
36	New York	17	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
37	England	16	16	1			1										England	England.
38	California	19	16	1			1										Illinois	New York.
39	California	17	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
40	England	18	16	1			1										England	England.
41	Missouri																Pennsylvania	Missouri.
	Saleswomen.																	
1	New Jersey	22	17	1			1							250 00	328 00	192 00	Ireland	Ireland.
2	Ohio	27	20	1						1			260 00	60 00	416 00		Germany	Germany.
3	California	17	15	1			1										Switzerland	Massachusetts.
4	Michigan	38	17	1									184 00			100 00	Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	24	18	1													New York	New York.
6	New York	22	16	1													Ireland	Massachusetts.
7	California	21	15	1													New York	Rhode Island.
8	California	19	16	1													Ireland	Ireland.
	Shirtmakers.																	
1	New York	25	25		1					1						0	New York	New York.
2	California	20	13	1						1					384 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
3	Ohio	21	19	1			1						169 00	48 00	442 00	0	Ohio	Ohio.
4	Ireland	20	16	1				1			1 00	3 00	156 00	146 00	338 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
5	British Columbia	22	15		1					1					66 00		Isle of Man	Scotland.
6	California	20	14	1			1										Michigan	Ireland.
7	California	21	21		1		1						312 00				Germany	Germany.
8	Pennsylvania	22	21		1		1						148 00	156 00	364 00	0	Scotland	Pennsylvania.
9	New York	38	16			1	1						190 00	70 00	260 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
10	California	18	16	1			1										Ireland	France.
11	California	19	15	1			1						140 00	160 00	350 00	0	Ireland	England.
12	New York	20	16	1			1										New York	New York.
13	California	16	14	1			1										Ireland	United States.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work	Single	Married	Widow	Live At. Home	Live At. Boarding House	Live At. Lodging House	Live At. Private Family	Weekly. Room Rent	Weekly. Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
14	Connecticut	39	18		1		1										New York	Connecticut.
15	Connecticut	20	16	1			1										Canada	Connecticut.
16	Ireland	38	17		1		1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	Ireland	24	16				1										Ireland	Ireland.
	Suspender Makers.																	
1	Ireland	35	28			1	1						$30 00	$226 00	$338 00		Canada	Illinois.
2	New York	21	19	1			1						208 00		364 00		England	England.
3	California																New Hampshire	Ireland.
4	California	19	16	1													New York	New York.
5	Ireland	22	15														Ireland	Ireland.
	Tailoring.																	
1	California	22	16	1			1						119 00	208 00	416 00	0	England	Ireland.
2	Massachusetts	23	13			1	1						208 00	65 00	364 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
3	California	15	14	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
4	California	20	12	1			1						194 00	212 00	416 00	0	Ireland	Ireland.
5	California	19	15	1			1										Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania.
6	California	19	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
7	California	17	15	1			1										Ireland	England.
8	Ireland	21	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
9	California	18	15	1			1										New York	New York.
10	California	17	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
11	Nevada	16	14	1					1			$1 25	55 00	87 00	158 00	0	New York	Ireland.
12	New York	18	17	1					1		$1 50	3 00					New York	New York.
13	California	17	15	1													Ireland	Ireland.
14	Massachusetts	17	16	1				1				3 00				0	New York	Massachusetts.
15	California	24	18	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
16	California	19	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
17	New York	18	14	1			1										New York	Massachusetts.
18	California	17	16	1			1										Ireland	New York.

19	California	18	15	1			1						156 00	234 00	464 00	0	England	England.
20	France	23	14		1		1										France	France.
21	New York	19	17	1			1							255 00	520 00		Ireland	Ireland.
	Trunk and Valise Makers.																	
1	California	19	17	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
2	Oregon	18	15	1			1										Germany	Ireland.
3	California	16	14	1			1										Germany	New York.
4	California	20	12	1			1						104 00			0	Germany	Germany.
5	Ireland	18	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	19	15	1			1										England	England.
	Upholstering.																	
1	California	25	16	1			1							200 00	508 00		Louisiana	Scotland.
2	New York	20	19	1			1										New York	New York.
3	New York	37	16			1	1										New York	New York.
4	California	19	15	1			1										England	Ireland.
5	Ireland	40	14		1					1							England	Ireland.
6	New Jersey	22	15	1			1								459 00	0	New Jersey	New York.
7	California	18	16	1			1							278 00			England	England.
8	California																Ireland	Ireland.
9	Massachusetts	19	15	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
10	California	18	14	1			1										England	Ireland.
	Umbrella Makers.																	
1	California	20	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
2	California	18	16	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
3	California	18	11	1			1										England	England.
4	Pennsylvania	57	20			1	1										England	Pennsylvania.
5	California	27	15		1												Ireland	Ireland.
6	New York	19	16	1			1										Ireland	New York.
7	California	21	17	1			1										England	England.
	Winery, San José.																	
1	California	17	17	1			1										Vermont	New York.
2	California	19	17	1						1	1 65	3 00	241 00				New York	New York.
3	Iowa	16	16	1			1										England	England.
4	California	17	17	1			1										Massachusetts	Massachusetts.
5	California	16	16	1			1										England	England.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

TABLE B—Continued.

Number	Birthplace.	Present Age	Age When Began to Work.	Single	Married	Widow	Live At. Home	Live At. Boarding House	Live At. Lodging House	Live At. Private Family	Weekly. Room Rent	Weekly. Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Expense for Room and Board	Financial Results of Past Year. Clothing Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Total Actual Expense	Financial Results of Past Year. Savings	Birthplace of Father.	Birthplace of Mother.
	Golden Gate Woolen Mills, San Francisco.																	
1	California	21		1			1										France	Canada.
2	California	16	15	1			1										New York	Ireland.
3	California	15	13	1			1										New York	New York.
4	California	16		1			1										New York	Germany.
5	New York	18	15	1			1										Ireland	Ireland.
6	California	19	16	1			1										New York	New York.
	Woolen Mills, San José.																	
1	California	18	16	1			1							$300 00	$750 00		Ohio	Ohio.
2	California	18	17	1			1								400 00		United States	United States.
3	California	19	18	1			1								400 00		England	England.
4	Rhode Island	17	15	1			1								400 00		England	England.
5	England	41	20		1		1									$50 00	England	England.
6	England	35	12		1		1										England	England.
7	Missouri	18	16	1			1										Missouri	Missouri.
8	California	20	18	1			1										Michigan	Missouri.
9	California	17	15	1			1						$156 00	156 00	312 00		Ohio	Ohio.
10	California	15	15	1													New York	Ireland.
11	New York	41	15			1		1			$1 00	$3 00	208 00				England	England.
12	Scotland	18	14	1			1										Scotland	Scotland.
13	California	18	16	1			1										Michigan	Missouri.
14	Alaska	18	18	1			1										Alaska	Alaska.
15	Michigan	17	15	1			1										England	England.
16	California	17	16	1			1								250 00		New York	New York.
17	California	17	15	1			1										Michigan	Missouri.

NOTE.—For "working" and "home" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivision 1, Table "A," and Subdivision 3.

CHAPTER II—SUBDIVISION 3.

HOME CONDITIONS OF WORKINGWOMEN.

NOTE.—For "Working" and "Personal and Financial" conditions of the same person, see corresponding number in Subdivisions 1 and 2, Tables "A" and "B."

BOOKBINDING—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with mother; helps to support her; dresses very well; good public school education.

No. 4. Lives with parents; educated at a convent; saves nothing; dresses well.

No. 5. Well dressed; been through grammar school; lives with parents; works for pin money.

No. 6. Lives with parents and gives all wages to mother, who provides for all her wants; knows nothing of expenses; been through grammar school.

No. 7. Lives with mother and gives all wages to her; she provides; dresses very well; good common school education.

No. 8. Rents a small flat furnished with her own furniture; mother dead; well educated; well dressed.

No. 11. Lives with parents who are well off; owns home and vineyard in Fresno; well dressed; well educated.

No. 12. Father dead; mother married again; lives with mother; been to public school.

No. 13. Lives at home with mother; father a miner; does not live at home, but contributes towards support of family; gives wages to mother, who provides; neatly dressed; been to public school.

No. 14. Father owns ranch in country; been through grammar school; well dressed.

No. 15. Lives with mother, who is a widow and has some means of support; been to public school; neatly dressed.

No. 16. Lives in Oakland with mother, who is a widow; home belongs to mother; she and brother support mother; been to public school; well dressed; gives wages to mother, who provides for all.

BOOT AND SHOEMAKERS, SAN FRANCISCO—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Husband seems to give no support; lives with parents, in healthy locality; good two-story house, with six rooms; surroundings pleasant; mother takes care of her when sick; cannot state exact amount spent for clothing; all rest of earnings go for clothes, pleasures, etc., after board is paid; well educated and well dressed; saves nothing.

No. 2. Gives all wages to parents, who live in a healthy locality; surroundings pleasant; house well furnished; will marry and quit work next month; mother will give her a nice wedding and wedding clothes; good grammar school education; well dressed.

No. 3. Lives with parents; gives all wages to mother; has pleasant, cheerful home; receives company; is a lady in parlor, evenings; dresses very well; good common school education; healthy, quiet surroundings; mother uses wages as she thinks best.

No. 4. Has kind parents; gives most of her wages to them; father works; have three small children dependent on them; live in comfortable house of five rooms; well educated; well dressed and well fed; spends all she does not give to parents on clothing, pleasure, street car, etc.; saves nothing.

No. 5. Father shoemaker; live in upper flat of six rooms; two brothers at work; pays board to parents; knows little of her expenses after board; good, kind parents; well dressed and well educated; spends all for clothing and pleasure after board and lodging are paid; nothing saved.

No. 6. Mother and daughter live together; father dead some years; daughter bears all the expenses while mother keeps house; rents one room to help; has little children cousins she helps to support; well dressed; public school education.

No. 7. Lives with sister in house of five rooms; sister married; parents in Ireland; neatly dressed; ordinary education; quiet, healthy location; house neatly furnished.

No. 9. Mother a widow; owns her home; has two sons and another daughter who are contributing toward support of family; all live with mother in a nice, quiet, healthy home, well furnished; all live well and dress well; a good education; mother keeps house, does her own washing.

No. 10. Lives with parents; father quite old and not able to work, but has saved something from his earnings; has several sons who help to support father and mother; a good, happy family; all live together and do their part; a well dressed girl; been through grammar school.

No. 11. Lives with parents; father works, makes a good living; gives wages to mother; she supplies her clothes and other wants; knows nothing of expenses; been through grammar school; lives in nice, quiet home.

No. 12. Lives with parents; father works; provides well for family; gives wages to mother, who clothes her well and gives her pleasure money; been through grammar school; home quiet; healthy surroundings.

No. 13. Lives with mother, who is a widow; has sons who help to support her; spends all wages.

No. 14. Father lives, and owns home in country; mother dead; prefers to live in city and work in factory; been through grammar school; neatly dressed; boarding house is homelike.

No. 15. Widow; worked before marriage; gave it up for several years after marriage, but resumed it again after husband's death; had means of support until recently; had to make ends meet; won't go in debt; saves nothing; takes some meals in restaurant, some cooked in her room; rents unfurnished rooms and furnishes them herself; educated in Massachusetts; good plain clothing; could give no correct account of expenses; all is spent; more if she had it.

No. 16. Parents dead; only two sisters; both work in same factory; both room together in a quiet, homelike place; been to public school; plainly dressed.

No. 17. Father in good circumstances; has property, and sold his home; going to build new home; gives wages to mother; knows nothing of expenses.

No. 18. Wages to mother; divorced widow.

No. 20. Parents own home; father works and makes a good living; one son works; gives wages to mother.

No. 21. Mother is a widow; two brothers help to support family; home belongs to mother; all make comfortable living and enjoy it; well dressed; been through grammar school.

No. 22. Lives with parents; wages to mother; father well off; well dressed; healthy, quiet home.

No. 23. Mother a widow; she and three brothers support family; mother not strong, and one sister helps her at home; one small one goes to school; all make comfortable living; half wages to mother; rest for clothes and necessaries; home belongs to mother; been to public school; well dressed; home surroundings very pleasant.

No. 24. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; been to public school.

No. 25. Mother a widow; she and one brother live with mother and help to support her; mother keeps home and takes in sewing; they make a comfortable living; mother uses the wages as she thinks best; girl knows nothing of expenses; neatly dressed; been through grammar school; home surroundings pleasant.

No. 27. Lives with parents; father disabled for work by an accident, but has saved enough for comfort; the daughter, the only child, is self supporting; plainly dressed; public school education; pleasant home.

No. 32. Lives with parents in a nice house of six rooms; seven in family; father works.

No. 33. Mother and father dead; lives with sister; well dressed; good grammar school education; a sensible girl; saves something every year; home pleasant; healthy location.

No. 35. Father dead; mother owns home and other property, rents for support of family; several children dependent; good house, with sufficient rooms for health and comfort, well lighted and well furnished; good education; well dressed.

No. 39. Father dead; lives with mother, who works in the same factory; one sister keeps house; another works; all put wages together; mother does the spending; a good mother, who looks after the welfare of the children; knows nothing of expenses; has a quiet home; well dressed; plain education.

No. 40. Can give no exact account of expenses; lives with parents and pays no board; dresses fine; spends all on clothing and pleasure; home pleasant; father gas collector.

No. 41. Gives all wages to mother, who spends as she thinks best; lives in healthy, comfortable house of five rooms; father, longshoreman; well educated and well dressed; well kept generally; saves nothing.

No. 42. Lives with parents, in comfortable house with five rooms; wages are given to parents, who have five other children; some work, but others are too small; surroundings good and healthy; good education; well dressed; mother furnishes all clothing and pleasure money.

No. 44. Mother keeps boarding house on one of the best streets; gives wages to mother; dresses nicely; well educated.

No. 45. Lives with mother, who is a widow, in a nice two-story house; sister and brother work, and support mother and five small children; mother in poor health, and keeps house; nothing is saved; good, plain education; plainly dressed.

No. 47. Gives wages to mother, who provides; pays no board; mother uses the money as she thinks best, and dresses her very nicely; good grammar school education; lives in healthy home.

No. 48. Father dead, and lives with mother, and also gives wages to her, who looks after her wants; knows nothing of expenses; well dressed; well educated; home in nice, quiet location.

No. 49. Found two girls about eighteen or nineteen years old, working in a large Chinese shoe factory with one hundred or more Chinese workmen, and they were the only white persons in the establishment; one girl gave me this much information: Both preferred to work there, with and under Chinamen, because they got higher wages; one said, father was dead and lived with mother and sister at home; the other, mother dead and lived with father.

CANDYMAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents in good house; gives wages to mother, who spends as she thinks best; public school education.

No. 2. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her necessities; dresses well; public school education.

No. 3. Lives with mother, who is a widow with four children; poorly dressed; fair education.

No. 4. Lives with parents; father drinks, and brings little earnings home; poorly dressed; fair education.

No. 5. Lives with father, who is a shoemaker, but earns little at his trade; good education.

CHOCOLATE FACTORY—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with mother; father died recently; gives wages to mother; she uses as she thinks best; neatly dressed; been to public school.

No. 2. Husband disabled from work; takes all wages to feed and clothe family; poorly educated; plainly dressed.

CIGARMAKERS, SAN FRANCISCO—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides; seven in family; father a seaman; comfortable home; mother not compelled to work; keeps house; takes care of the children; been to public school; very neatly dressed.

No. 2. Divorced; husband a no account, worthless scamp; lives with mother, who owns her home; is poor; mother a dressmaker; been to school; not well dressed.

No. 3. Mother a widow; owns a three-story flat; rents two, upper and lower ones; lives in middle one; has a very comfortable support from rents; lives with mother; an only child; been to school; well dressed.

No. 4. Lives with grandmother; gives all money but $1 50 per week to her; she provides for expenses; receives assistance occasionally from an aunt also; grandmother must have other means of support than what she makes, but does not know; well dressed; been to public school; lost time nursing grandmother.

No. 5. Lives with parents; father not in good health; does not work; four children work and support parents; graduate of public grammar school; not well dressed.

No. 6. Parents dead; lives with sister, who makes a nice, pleasant home for her; charges no board; can dress well; been to school.

No. 7. Lives with parents; father a plumber, and makes a comfortable living; three children live at home, and help parents; been to public school; well dressed; home in pleasant locality.

No. 8. Lives with parents; father an invalid; does no work; not very comfortable living is made; six in family; three help to support family; mother keeps house; never been to school; went one year to night school; poorly dressed; home in healthy locality.

No. 9. Lives with parents; father is a retired merchant; been to school, both public and convent; one brother works and lives with parents; he helps to support family; father does no work now, not necessary; well dressed; has comfortable, quiet home, with healthy surroundings.

No. 10. Lives with and gives wages to mother, who provides for the necessaries; mother kind and good; comfortably dressed; good common school education. This is one of the sisters working with the Chinamen.

No. 11. Gives wages to parents; knows nothing of her expenses; well dressed; pretty good education; parents kind; good home, comfortably furnished.

No. 12. Lives with mother, a widow; five sons, who help to support mother; all live together in a comfortable house, with sufficient room for health; comfortably dressed; good grammar school education.

No. 13. Lives with parents; commenced work a few days ago; could not tell what would be given her at the end of the week; wages according to what she can do; healthy home; fair education; parents, working people; only plainly dressed.

No. 14. Gives all her wages to father; mother dead; father has three more children; all help and support themselves; can't tell about expenses; nothing saved; home comfortable, with four rooms; good education; well dressed; father sober and kind.

No. 15. Is a widow; one daughter, who is married; one works and helps to support the family; works in the same establishment with mother; they put wages together and use in common; cannot state the amount spent for clothing; all the rest go for food and home expenses, after rent is paid; nothing is saved; glad when ends meet; poorly educated; poor clothes; location, healthy; good house.

No. 16. Gives wages to parents, who provide clothing and other necessaries; father not strong, but works when he can; one son, who helps to support family; live in healthy house; well dressed; can read and write.

No. 17. Both parents living; father works at cigar business; gives wages to parents, who are kind and provide well for her and family; good mother, who sees after the happiness and clothing of children; good common school education; well dressed; healthy, cheerful, happy home.

No. 18. Gives wages to mother, who provides everything for her; lives with parents; good house of four rooms; healthy, pleasant surroundings; fair education; dresses well; two sisters.

No. 26. Lives with parents; gives all wages to mother, who provides for five other children, who work and help parents; father old, can't work; all working and helping to make a comfortable home; been to public school and convent; very well dressed.

No. 27. Is divorced; husband lazy, and treated her badly; has been supporting self and child about two years; very well dressed; been to public school; lives with friends, who

are kind and charge little board, or it would be hard to make a living; been to public school; boarding place quiet and home like.

No. 28. All the wages given to parents, who provide all the necessaries and luxuries; has a happy, healthy home; kind parents, who have three other children; father a laborer; well dressed; good common school education.

No. 29. Gives all her wages to mother, who is a widow; six other children; all able to work and support themselves, and help mother; mother gives her clothing, etc.; lives in two-story house, five rooms; pleasant surroundings; very well dressed, and well educated.

No. 35. Husband cruel; could not live with him; is divorced; lives with mother, who is kind; after paying board and lodging, all the rest goes for clothing and other necessaries; saves nothing; glad to make ends meet; comfortably dressed; good education; comfortable home; healthy, quiet surroundings.

No. 36. Lives with parents; pays no board; spends all her wages for dress and other pleasures; saves nothing; has a good time generally; father and mother kind; pleasant home; good common school education; healthy, happy looking girl; dresses well; knows nothing of expenses.

No. 42. Knows nothing of expenses; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her wants; mother widow; keeps lodging house; five children; two go to school; others help mother; good common school education; well dressed; healthy locality and pleasant surroundings.

No. 43. Mother and daughter live together; mother a widow not able to work; only able to keep the house and do the sewing; live in comfortable house, four rooms; healthy locality; pays $10 a month for rent; cannot state exact amount spent for clothing; after clothing, rest of earnings go for food and housekeeping expenses; no savings.

No. 44. Gives wages to mother, who feeds and clothes her, and does the sewing and housekeeping work; father, wharfman, who has other small children; another daughter who helps with parents; lives in house with six rooms; healthy location; good education.

No. 45. Lives with parents; father laborer; six children, all self-supporting; after paying board, gives all to mother, who provides clothing and pin money; well educated; well dressed; healthy locality; good house; sufficient rooms for comfort.

No. 46. Two sisters; rent house of four rooms; live together, and support old grandmother and little sister; elder ones keep house; all earnings go for support; live in healthy locality; good surroundings; well educated, and well dressed.

No. 49. Lives with parents; father a carpenter, doing good business; owns his home; has a family of six children; home a pretty cottage over the bay; educated in public school in Vermont; well dressed.

No. 50. Lives with mother, who is a widow; rents house; family of three children; not well educated; fairly dressed; complains of having to work with Chinese.

No. 51. Lives with parents; father is a laborer; he drinks hard, and often begs money of her to buy liquor; lives in upper part of house, poorly furnished; four children in family.

No. 52. Father old; mother in Napa Asylum, hopelessly insane; two sisters work to keep house and support father and one small sister; the two make a plain, comfortable living for all; a strong, healthy young woman used to work; public school education.

CIGAR BOX MAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with aunt, who keeps house; not necessary to work; owns her own home and other property.

No. 2. Lives with mother, who does no work for wages.

No. 3. Lives with mother, who owns her home; has no other children to help family.

No. 4. She and two other children live with mother, and put wages together to support family.

No. 5. Lives with parents; father a peddler; makes very little; only for her wages, mother would have nothing; gives all to her.

No. 6. Lives at home with parents; gives wages to mother; father a shoemaker, but hardly makes enough to support self.

No. 7. Father a carpenter; lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides her with clothes.

No. 8. Mother a widow; three brothers work; all live with mother, she keeps house; all contribute toward the support of mother; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 9. Lives with parents; works to help them; gives wages to mother, who provides for her; plainly dressed; been to school very little.

No. 10. Pays $7 per month for house rent, after that it takes every cent for food and clothes; plainly dressed; been to public school.

No. 13. Father an old worn out miner, not able to work; lives with parents; gives wages to mother, and she does the best she can; been to public school; neatly dressed.

No. 14. Lives with and gives wages to aunt, and she provides for her; knows nothing of expenses; plainly educated; neatly dressed.

No. 15. Mother a widow; lives with mother; she has two boys who help to support the family; they also give wages to mother; mother provides for her; neatly dressed; been to public school.

No. 18. Mother a widow; gives wages to mother; she is the oldest of several children; mother works when she can get it; father dead six years.

No. 19. Lives with mother; father dead a short time; just commenced work; four small children; wages to mother.

No. 20. Lives with parents, and gives wages to mother; she provides everything.
No. 21. She and husband board with parents; parents well off; dresses well; graduate of high school.
No. 22. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides; well dressed; graduate of grammar school.

CLEANING AND DYEING—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father makes a good support for family; gives wages to mother, who provides for all; graduate of grammar school; well dressed.
No. 2. The family with whom she lives is quite homelike and pleasant; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 3. Gives all her wages to her sister, who provides for her; very well educated; well dressed.
No. 6. Mother, daughter, and brother live together; brother works, and helps to support them; well dressed, and well educated.

CALIFORNIA COTTON MILLS, OAKLAND—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents, who own their house; gives wages to mother, who provides for all comforts, pleasures, and necessities; home comfortable; been to public school and convent; neatly dressed.
No. 2. Lives with parents, who own their own home; father not well; is a junk peddler; three sisters work and support father and mother; the three make a comfortable living; poorly dressed; been to public school; all give wages to mother, and she provides for them as she thinks best; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 3. Father owns ranch in country; mother owns home also; home comfortable; been to public school; very well dressed; six in family.
No. 4. Lives with parents; father owns home; father a bootblack; don't make much money; gives wages to mother, who provides; been to public school; plainly dressed; home comfortable.
No. 5. Lives with parents, who own their home; been to public school and convent; father makes a comfortable living; eight in family; very well dressed.
No. 6. Father a peddler, makes a poor living, but owns his home; gives wages to mother, who provides; two sisters working in mill; all help parents; eight children; poorly dressed.
No. 7. Lives with parents; four sisters work in mill and help to support the family.
No. 8. Only daughter and mother; mother prefers to work for wages; daughter not very strong; keep house; could give no correct account of expenses, but it takes all the wages to support the two; they rent a small cottage and make a comfortable home; educated in the East, and very well dressed.
No. 9. Was educated in Massachusetts; dresses very well; nice, quiet home in a boarding house.
No. 10. Lives with parents; father works; is a longshoreman; gives wages to mother, who provides for her; been to public school and convent; comfortably dressed; helps to support.
No. 11. Father owns home; gives wages to mother; she supplies with all necessaries; one brother helps also to support; poorly dressed; been to public school.
No. 12. Lives with parents; father owns his home; works, and makes a good living; has three children; went to public school in Texas; very well dressed; home pleasant.
No. 13. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; she provides; father works at little jobs now and then; two brothers work, and help to keep family; four children in all; well dressed.
No. 14. Had to work from early childhood; never went to school; neatly dressed.
No. 15. Rents a small house; she and husband live together; takes all wages to supply necessaries; have other means, but it is not used; could give no account of expenses; well dressed; good education.

CRACKER FACTORY—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; gives most of wages to mother; been through grammar school.
No. 2. Lives with mother, who is a widow; mother keeps house, and is supported by four children; gives wages to mother, she provides everything; neatly dressed; been through public school.
No. 3. A young widow; well dressed; been through public school.
No. 4. Father owns home; makes a good living; lives with parents; gives wages to mother; she provides for all her necessities; pretty well dressed; public school education.
No. 5. Husband drinks; not unkind; well dressed; well educated.
No. 6. Father a teamster; makes a good living; gives wages to mother; she provides for all her necessities; well dressed; been through public school.
No. 7. Two sisters live together; common education; well dressed.
No. 8. Lives with aunt; saves nothing; mother and father dead; well dressed; been to public school.

CLOAK AND SHAWL—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Supported by parents; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 2. Gives wages to mother, who is a widow; has two children dependent; well dressed been to public school.

No. 3. Father insurance agent; well educated, and well dressed.
No. 4. Lives with employer, who is kind; parents dead.
No. 5. Lives with parents, who support her; well dressed.
No. 7. Lives with father, but he does not make much on account of not being strong; has two sisters; fair education.
No. 10. Father a carpenter; mother keeps house; gives wages to mother; well dressed.

DRESSMAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Spends money as she pleases; good grammar school education.
No. 4. Well dressed, and well educated.
No. 5. Lives with parents; father dry goods merchant; been to public school; well dressed; gives wages to mother, who provides.
No. 6. Lives with mother, who is a widow; been to convent school; also graduate of public school.
No. 7. Two sisters live with friend in same room; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 8. Mother a widow; father not dead long; gives wages to mother, with whom she lives; she provides as best she can; been to public school; dresses well.
No. 9. Lives with mother; mother owns a ranch in country; been to convent school; well dressed.
No. 10. Father owns his home; gives wages to mother, who provides for her; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 11. Lives with parents; father groceryman; makes comfortable support for family; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 12. Lives with parents, who live in nice home; helps to support one sister; well educated, and well dressed.
No. 13. Nothing saved; well dressed; plain education.
No. 14. Gives wages to mother, who provides; well dressed; good education.
No. 15. Gives wages to parents, who provide for her; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 17. Mother dead; dresses well, and well educated.
No. 18. Been through grammar grade of public school; well dressed.
No. 19. Well dressed, and well educated girl.
No. 20. Well dressed, and well educated; widow; no children.
No. 21. Father owns his home; several brothers work, and help to support father; been through grammar grade of public school; well dressed.
No. 22. Lives with husband; dresses nicely; well educated; lost money in stocks.
No. 23. Parents dead; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 24. Saves all her wages; husband pays all expenses.
No. 25. Lives with widowed mother; owns home; has other means of support.
No. 26. Lives with parents; owns home.

FRUIT CANNING AND PACKING, SANTA CLARA COUNTY—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Husband makes a good support, and provides everything; has a home in the country; is only living here to educate the children; works only during the fruit season; comfortably dressed; been to school; not necessary to work; could tell nothing of expenses.
No. 2. Only works at this business because she is lonesome at home; has plenty of means to live on more than comfortably; well dressed; well educated; could give no account of expenses; home belongs to her.
No. 3. She and husband live together; she saves all her wages, to buy a home; husband works for $75 per month, and supports family very comfortably; have one child, nine years old; dresses well; been to school.
No. 4. Is a widow; keeps house, and one sister lives with her; works as canner during the fruit season, and does plain sewing the other months; could give no correct statement of expenses; owns her home; makes quite a comfortable living for herself and child; neatly dressed; good education.
No. 5. Lives with uncle, who supports her; knows nothing of expenses; only working during vacation; will return to school when it commences; uncle is having her educated for a teacher; wanted some pin money, and thought it an easy, nice way to make it; well dressed; home pleasant and healthy.
No. 6. She is a teacher; only works in fruit factory in vacation, that is, about two months; could give no accurate account of expense after board was paid; dresses well; teaches in country.
No. 7. Parents own their home, a nice cottage; father a machinist; makes a comfortable support; one brother works and lives at home; helps family also; lives at home with parents; been to public school; nicely dressed.
No. 8. Lives with mother, who is a widow, and rents her home; other children live at home, and help to support mother; gives half wages to mother; only works during fruit season; educated at convent; well dressed; all working and giving part of wages to mother, enables her to have a nice home.
No. 9. Lives with parents; father in railroad business; makes a good living; only works in the fruit season for pin money; spends all for clothing, and when more is needed calls on father; has one sister who works; well dressed; been to public high school; home a nice, pleasant cottage; after fruit season, remains at home, does no work.
No. 10. The old lady rents one furnished room, at $10 per month; does her own cooking and other work; only works in the fruit packing business during the fruit season, which

is six months of the year; is too old to do house work or hard work, but makes ends meet one way or another; is strong and healthy; comfortably dressed; been to public school.

No. 11. Husband and wife keep house; husband has a good business, and supports the family; makes a comfortable support for all; she saves all her wages; only works for wages during the fruit packing season; comfortably dressed; been to public school; does all house work, except washing.

No. 12. Left home; had trouble with father; could not live with him; only commenced present occupation; don't know if she will follow it through the season; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 13. Lives with parents in a nice cottage very comfortably; gives wages to mother, who provides; only works during vacation; is still going to public school; neatly dressed.

No. 14. Lives with mother, who is a widow, and works in fruit factory when able; mother is in poor circumstances; gives wages to mother; she provides; works in fruit factory all fruit season, six months; the other six months does house work, from $10 to $12 per month and board; neatly dressed; been to public school; all together make a nice home.

No. 15. Lives with parents in a beautiful cottage; father a carpenter; not necessary for her to work; only does it because she is lonesome at home, and rather make her own pin money; gave up typesetting because employer would not give two or more weeks' vacation to entertain company; well dressed; been through grammar grade of public school.

No. 16. Is on a visit to her grandmother; never worked before; been to school nearly all her life; is only working now during vacation for a little pin money; will return to school when vacation is over; will finish at the San José Normal School; grandmother in good circumstances; owns her home; well dressed.

No. 17. Keeps house, but could give no exact account of expenses; saves nothing; has two daughters who work and help support the family; all working make a comfortable living; while husband was living, did not work for wages; well dressed.

No. 18. Mother works in same factory; has been keeping boarders; may again after fruit season is over; one sister, a dressmaker, who helps parents; father sick; can't work much; gives all wages to mother; been to State Normal School; neatly dressed; quiet, healthy home; helps mother at home, when she is keeping boarders; sometimes makes $1 a day as a clerk; also taught school for a short time.

No. 19. Mother dead; father works on a farm; would rather work in city and pay her own board, than live in country; after packing season is over, does sewing, or any light work; could not give exact amount made at other occupations; been to public schools; very well dressed; boards in pleasant, quiet family; could not tell exactly what was spent for clothes.

No. 20. Rents furnished room; boy goes to school; home pleasant.

No. 21. Husband sells fruit; saves half her wages; both save.

No. 22. Father owns a farm; comfortable home; no necessity to work.

No. 23. Lives with parents; father well off; owns fruit farm; works for pin money; well dressed and educated.

No. 24. She has to support the family; husband lazy, trifling fellow; not sick, but will not work; willing to stay at home, and mind the children; could not tell anything about expenses; right hard to make a living; one son works, and helps mother; plainly dressed; poorly educated; worked before marriage; some years after marriage, did not work; been at present occupation only a short time.

No. 25. Widow; one daughter; makes good living; knows nothing of expenses; well dressed and educated.

No. 26. Lives with parents; father has fruit ranch; gives wages to mother; well dressed.

No. 27. Works only in vacation for pin money; returns to school when it opens; attending Normal School, to be a teacher; parents comfortable; well dressed.

No. 28. Recently married second time; husband provides; knows nothing of expenses; has two daughters working in factory; all trying to save enough to buy a home.

No. 29. Lives with parents, who own home and fruit ranch; sells fruit to factories; does not work after fruit season; works for pin money.

No. 30. Lives with parents, who are rich; own fruit ranch; only wants pin money; well dressed; goes to school after vacation.

No. 31. Works only during fruit season; very poor; has a widowed daughter, with two children, who live with her; all work in fruit factory; children go to school the other months; daughter in poor health; all her life it took what she earned to live.

No. 32. Lives with mother, and gives her wages to her; mother works out by the day; she gets from $1 25 to $1 50 per day; owns her home; works during vacation, and returns to school; neatly dressed.

No. 33. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her necessities; father, brickmason; owns home, which is comfortable; well dressed.

No 34. Husband a bookkeeper; well off; owns home; work not necessary to make a living; well dressed and educated.

No. 35. Lives with mother, who is a widow; mother works in same factory; two other daughters work and all live together; they also put wages together and help each other; could give no accurate account of their expenses; a comfortable living is made by hard work; after fruit packing season is over a job of any kind is willingly done by this woman.

No. 36. Parents dead; has an uncle who is Mayor of * * * and worth $100,000; promised to help her if she would come West, but does not; well dressed, nice looking girl; boarding place quiet and homelike; when not employed in the fruit packing factory she sews and cooks.

No. 37. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother who provides for all necessities and pleasures; father plumber; owns his home; makes good support; not necessary for her to work; will only work during the season of fruit; will return to school; well dressed; father has family of four children; two work.

No. 38. Has not been from the East longer than two years; husband a laborer, but can't get work as readily as a woman; consequently makes but little; she has supported the family since they came West; works at fruit packing during the season; then at day work wherever she can get it; makes enough to support them all, with the support of one son, who is a painter; well dressed; well educated; could give no statement of expenses; will not go in debt.

No. 39. Lives with grandmother, who owns her home, and has means of support; works at fruit factory during vacation, to help support herself; gives wages to grandmother, who provides for her; knows nothing of expenses; going to school when it commences; neatly dressed; grandmother kind.

No. 40. Lives with father; mother dead; one sister works and helps to support the family; she keeps the house; father a laborer; gives his wages to daughter; she provides; makes comfortable home for all; neatly dressed.

No. 41. Is a widow, with one daughter thirteen years old, who works at the fruit factory during the season, which lasts about six months, then goes to school; she can make about as much as her mother; mother manages to live pretty comfortably on what both make; plainly dressed, and plainly educated; could not tell of expenses; took all to live.

No. 42. She and one daughter live together; husband cuts wood up in the mountains, and is seldom at home; daughter not strong; stays at home and does the house work while she makes the money for their support, by working in the fruit factory in the fruit season, and does odd jobs the other six months; could give no exact account of expenses; poorly dressed and educated.

No. 43. Mother lives with her, and takes care of the children when at work; lost one arm while working in the woolen mills; does house work when not in the fruit factory; been to public school; well dressed; a smart, thrifty woman; could not give exact amount of expenses, but saves something every year.

No. 44. Lives with parents, and gives wages to them; has not finished going to school; will only work the fruit season; mother works in the factory also to help through the winter; father is a carpenter, but is sick and not working; neatly dressed.

No. 45. Lives with mother, who is a widow; mother and three sisters work; gives wages to mother, who provides; all working and helping to make a good living; mother only works during fruit season; the others work the year round.

No. 46. Father moved to San Diego on a farm; she remained to finish school; only works during the fruit season; father clothes her and furnishes her with other means when necessary; could not tell about expenses; well dressed.

FRUIT CANNING AND PACKING, SAN FRANCISCO—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 47. Lives with husband, who has small business for self; father works in fruit factory; cannot speak English.

No. 48. Lodges by self; cooks for self; not very strong.

No. 49. Lives in two rooms; son lives with her; helps her with expenses; rent $4 per month; son was sick three years; does work for private families when not earning from $10 to $12 in factory; in doing this work she is given her board.

No. 50. Occupies five rooms; two children earn wages; rest are sick or small; plainly dressed; is seamstress when not in factory, earning not more than $4 to $5 per week.

No. 51. Lives with mother, two brothers, and one sister; mother works in fruit factory; been to public school; gives one half of wages to mother, rest for clothes; when not in factory, works in private family for from $10 to $12 per month.

No. 52. Lives in two rooms; three daughters, who work in same factory; dresses poorly; does house work when not in factory.

No. 53. Husband silver plater; makes $100 per month; the two put money together; dresses well; good education; only works five months, at home the rest of the year.

No. 54. Rents part of a house of five rooms; lives with parents; very poorly dressed; can speak very little English.

No. 55. Has two children; husband a fisherman; poorly dressed; would not tell anything about home.

No. 56. Rents two rooms; speaks little English, and could not understand questions.

No. 57. Rents two rooms; slovenly dressed; would not answer.

No. 58. Pays half her earnings for board; poorly dressed.

FRUIT BASKET MAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father owns home; well off; not necessary for her to work; gives wages to mother; she provides for her; plainly dressed; public school education.

No. 2. Lives with mother, who is a widow; she and one brother support mother; mother uses wages as she thinks best; been to public school; plainly dressed.

No. 3. Lives with parents; father works; her wages go towards the support of family; been to public school; plainly dressed.

No. 4. Father dead; lives with mother and grandmother; the only child; wages go towards the support of family; been to public school.

No. 5. Lives with parents; father a carpenter; makes a comfortable living; has four children; gives wages to mother; she provides for her; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 6. Lives with parents; large family; very poor; father a teamster; gives wages to mother; plainly dressed.

No. 7. Very well educated; been to public school in Missouri; father a laborer; makes a pretty good living for family; gives wages to mother, who provides for her.

GLOVEMAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father a carpenter; gives wages to mother.

No. 2. Lives with parents, who own their home; good education; well dressed.

No. 3. Mother and daughter live together; been to public school.

No. 4. Lives with parents; father owns home; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 5. Lives with sister; well dressed; been through public school.

No. 6. Lives with mother, who is a divorced widow; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her necessities; plainly dressed; been to public school.

No. 7. Lives with parents in a quiet, healthy home; father a shipbuilder; makes a comfortable living; gives wages to mother; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 8. Gives wages to mother, who provides; well dressed; well educated.

No. 9. Father a merchant; makes a good living; lives with parents.

No. 10. Father owns a home in Oakland; he is a shipbuilder.

No. 11. Lives with parents; dresses fine; well educated.

No. 12. Husband dead; saves nothing; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 13. Lives with parents, who own their home; mother provides for all her wants; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 14. Husband and wife; live together; been to school; well dressed.

HARNESSMAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Husband works in harness business; supports neither wife nor child; good education; well dressed.

No. 2. Good public school education; dresses well, and saves nothing.

No. 3. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 4. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; has nothing to do with expenses; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 5. Father owns his home, and a small milk ranch; dresses well; been to public school.

No. 6. Gives wages to mother; lives with mother; well dressed; good education.

No. 7. Lives with mother, who is a widow; been to public school; well dressed; mother uses wages as she thinks best.

No. 8. Gives most of wages towards the support of mother, who is not able to work; saves nothing; good grammar school education; lives with mother.

No. 9. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides all the necessaries and pin money; well dressed; common school education.

HOOPSKIRT FACTORY—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father drinks, and does not earn much for family; three younger children; poorly dressed; fair education.

No. 2. Mother a widow; two children at home; very poor; fair education.

No. 3. Father a butcher; makes good wages; well dressed; good education.

No. 5. Is quite poor; husband no account; common school education.

JAPANNING AND TINWORK—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; well dressed.

No. 2. Lives with parents; well dressed; home pleasant.

No. 3. Lives with parents; one brother and one sister help to support father and mother; father was a sick nurse, but is now too old, and cannot follow it for wages; all helping to make a comfortable living; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 4. Parents dead: has one sister, a dressmaker; both live in the same place; father been dead two months; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 5. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; she provides for all her necessities; one brother and one sister help to support father and mother also; father sells matches.

No. 6. Happily married; both put wages together and live very comfortably; well dressed; been through grammar school.

CALIFORNIA JUTE MILLS, OAKLAND—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; gives wages to them; mother provides; father has broken leg; she and one brother support family; poor, but live in nice cottage; mother strong; keeps house and does the washing.

No. 2. All wages to parents; supports self and others.

No. 3. Gives all wages to parents; three sisters and two brothers work and do the same; neither one of the parents works; mother keeps house, and provides for all when a new hat or new dress is wanted; dresses well enough for the dirty work; educated in Scotland; plain education.

No. 4. Husband and wife live together, put wages together, and share expenses together; each saves $20 per month; have two children; the two make a comfortable living; plain education; very well dressed.

No. 5. Lives with mother, who is a widow; brother works and helps to support also; gives wages to mother after the one meal a day is paid for; well dressed; well educated.

No. 6. Lives with parents; pays no board; father works; mother keeps house; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 7. Mother and daughter live together; mother keeps house; is a widow; girl's wages goes for the support of both; could give no account of expenses; educated in Scotland; plainly dressed.

No. 8. Been married about two years; husband works; they put wages together and supply the house with necessaries; make a comfortable living; plainly educated.

No. 9. Lives with father, who owns home; mother owns ranch in country; keeps house for father; both put wages together and live comfortably.

No. 10. Mother dead; lives with father, who is a laborer; she and one sister help to support father and a large family of children; make a comfortable living; poorly dressed.

No. 11. Lives with parents; father works; makes comfortable living; home owned by father; gives wages to mother.

No. 12. Gives wages to parents, with whom she lives; they have a comfortable home owned by father; been to public school; comfortably dressed.

No. 13. Lives with mother, who is a widow; an older sister works in same factory; both give wages to mother for support of the family; very poor; mother works for families; has one brother working in factory, who gives wages to mother also; poorly dressed.

No. 14. Lives with parents, who own home; father does no work; gives wages to mother; nice cottage.

No. 15. Lives with parents, who are negroes; father a whitewasher by trade; makes a pretty good living; been to public school; very well dressed.

No. 16. Lives with parents, who own their home; father works and makes a comfortable living; gives wages to mother, who provides; has another sister working in the mill; well dressed.

No. 17. Father a laborer; one brother and sister work and help parents; gives wages to mother; she provides; been to public school; poorly dressed; well enough for the dirty place.

LITHOGRAPHERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives in Oakland; gives wages to mother, and she provides; well educated; well dressed.

No. 2. Parents dead; lives with aunt, who acts as mother; gives wages to aunt, who provides for her; well dressed; been to public school.

No. 3. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, and she provides for her; been to public school; father works, and makes good support; well dressed.

No. 4. Lives with parents; father works, and, with the assistance of his children, makes a comfortable living; gives half of her wages to the support of the family; been to public school; neatly dressed.

No. 5. Two brothers and two sisters; live together, and make a comfortable, pleasant home; all do their part towards support; been through grammar school; neatly dressed.

No. 6. Lives with parents, who own their home; gives wages to mother, and she provides: been to public school; well dressed.

No. 7. A well dressed and well educated young woman.

LAUNDRIES—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Does not save anything; lives with husband, but supports herself.

No. 2. Lives with employer; spends all wages on dress and pleasure.

No. 3. Room good size; takes all earnings to support self and child.

No. 4. Lives with employer in the laundry; well dressed; good education.

No. 5. After three months will receive wages; lives with employer; well dressed; good education.

No. 6. Husband sick and does not work; saves nothing.

No. 7. Lives at home; husband works; saves nothing; dresses well.

No. 8. Lives with husband; they put money together to bear expenses; neatly dressed; saves nothing.

PAPER BOX MAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Left husband, and took children; lives with mother-in-law, who is kind; comfortably dressed; public school education.

No. 2. Lives with father, mother dead; one sister keeps house; father works; she helps father to support; neatly dressed; been to public school.

No. 3. Lives with parents; father well off, owns property; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 4. Lives with parents; father a butcher; owns his own home; gives wages to mother, who provides; been to public school; comfortably dressed; seven children.

No. 5. Lives with parents; own their home; well off; not obliged to work; been to public school.

No. 6. Father owns his home, and works; makes a comfortable living; lives with parents; gives wages to mother; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 7. Father owns his home; gives wages to mother, who provides for her; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 8. Lives with parents; neatly dressed; been to school.

No. 9. Lives with parents, and father owns home; gives wages to mother; well dressed.
No. 10. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 11. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother.

PRINTERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with mother, and also gives wages to mother; has other means of support; been through grammar school; well dressed.
No. 2. Lives with mother; gives wages to mother; been through grammar school; well dressed; mother a widow.
No. 3. Lives with parents; is not compelled to work; only works for pin money; gives wages to mother, but calls on her when she wants it to spend; been through grammar school; well dressed.
No. 4. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother, who provides for her necessities and her pleasures; graduate of grammar school; well dressed.
No. 5. Mother a widow; she and a brother support mother; gives all wages to mother, who keeps house and provides for the children; graduate of public school; well dressed.
No. 6. Gives wages to mother, who uses it for clothing, etc.; graduate from public school; well dressed.
No. 7. Mother (a physician) is a widow and has four other children dependent, but makes a comfortable living; mother uses wages as she thinks best; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 8. Lives with mother, who is a widow; has three other children who help to support family; gives wages to mother; she provides for her and uses wages as she thinks best; been through grammar school; well dressed.
No. 9. Lives with parents; father a painter; has other children working; gives wages to mother; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 10. Well dressed; well educated; parents dead.
No. 11. Only child; gives wages to mother, who uses it as she thinks best; well educated and well dressed.
No. 12. Lives with mother; gives all wages to mother, who provides for all necessities; well dressed, and has had good education.
No. 13. Gives wages to grandmother; knows nothing of expenses; grandmother provides for her; good education; well dressed.
No. 14. All wages left after paying board she gives to mother, who provides for all her necessities; well dressed; good education; saves nothing.
No. 15. Gives all wages to mother and lives with parents; knows nothing of expenses; well dressed; good education.
No. 16. Gives wages to mother, who is a widow, who provides for her and dresses her well; good education.
No. 17. Lives with mother-in-law; husband supports her entirely; only works to pass time; saves all her wages; well dressed; good education.
No. 18. Lives at home with mother and stepfather; gives all wages to mother for support of family; well educated.
No. 19. Lives at home with parents; father does not work; well educated.
No. 20. Lives at home with parents.
No. 21. Is well educated; lives in nice house owned by father; only works for pocket money and to be independent; buys her own clothes.
No. 22. Lives at home with parents and brother; father a doctor; well educated.
No. 23. No mother; nice boarding house; poor; father no good.
No. 24. Lives at home; father dead; mother well off.
No. 25. Well dressed; well educated; parents dead; boarding house nice home.
No. 26. Lives with mother, who has a nice home and means of support; brothers work and help the family; mother a widow; graduate of Normal School; well dressed.
No. 27. Lives with parents; father a dray driver, owns his home, makes a good support for the family; well dressed; been through grammar grade of public school.
No. 28. Lives with mother, who is a widow, owns her home, and has means of support; graduate of Normal School; well dressed.
No. 29. Lives with parents, who own their own home, a nice cottage; father works, makes a comfortable support for family of five children, two of which are self-supporting; well dressed and educated.
No. 31. Lives with parents in a quiet little home in Oakland; graduate of High School; dresses very well.
No. 32. Lives with parents; father a shoe merchant; gives wages to mother, who provides her with clothes, etc.; graduate of High School.
No. 33. Graduate of High School; lives with parents, who support her; well dressed.
No. 34. Father too old to work, is a carpenter by trade; lives with parents; graduate of High School; gives wages to mother, and she provides for all her necessities.
No. 35. Lives with parents; father shoe merchant; gives wages to mother, and she spends as she thinks best; well dressed; graduate of High School.
No. 36. Lives with parents, who are good to her; graduate of grammar school; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her wants; well dressed; nothing is saved.

SALESWOMEN—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with aunt, in healthy locality; pays her own board; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 2. Lives with parents; parents old; she helps to support them; well dressed and well educated.
No. 3. Father, paper carrier; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 4. Lives with brother of the proprietor; been to school.
No. 5. Lives with parents and gives wages to mother; father has means; not necessary for her to work; dresses fine; graduate of a Catholic institute; saves nothing.

SHIRTMAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Only commenced work a short time ago; works that she may have her own pin money; well dressed and well educated.
No. 2. Was educated in a convent; parents dead; well dressed.
No. 3. Parents dead; lives with sister; lost time last year from sickness; well educated and well dressed.
No. 4. Parents dead; well dressed; educated in public school.
No. 5. Spends wages as she pleases; well dressed; well educated.
No. 6. Lives with parents who own their own home; gives wages to mother; been to public school.
No. 7. Husband a carpenter; makes a good living; well dressed; good grammar school education.
No. 8. She and husband live with mother; husband works and makes a good living; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 9. Plainly dressed; poorly educated; saves nothing.
No. 10. Gives wages to mother; knows nothing of expenses; mother provides everything; father works; makes a good living; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 13. Lives with parents; father an engineer; gives all wages to mother; she provides for all her wants; dresses well; been through grammar school.
No. 14. Husband has consumption; fairly educated; plainly dressed.
No. 15. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother; she provides for all.
No. 16. Married; husband and wife bear expenses together; well educated and well dressed.

TAILORING—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father loads ships, and makes a good living; public school education; well dressed; spends all.
No. 2. Lives with mother, who is paralyzed, but has means of support; very well dressed; been to public school; takes all her wages to support child and self; saves nothing.
No. 3. Lives with parents, and gives wages to mother, who provides for all her wants; good, kind parents; been through grammar school; well dressed.
No. 4. Lives with parents in a nice house; well educated, and well dressed; spends all her earnings, after board, for pleasure.
No. 5. Lives with mother, who is a widow; mother is a sick nurse, but is not always employed; gives wages to mother, who can only get the necessaries of life.
No. 6. Home, upper flat; father works at dockyard; gives wages to mother.
No. 11. Home comfortable; mother and two other children live together; father drinks; well educated; dresses very well.
No. 12. Could tell nothing of expenses; dresses good; has good education.
No. 15. Lives with parents; well dressed; spends wages as she pleases, saves nothing; well educated.
No. 19. Lives with parents; graduate of grammar school.
No. 20. Good education; well dressed.
No. 21. Lives with parents; been to public school; dresses well.

TRUNK AND VALISE MAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents, who own their home; father a machinist, who makes a fine living for all; has eight children; gives wages to mother, who provides for all her necessities; well educated, and well dressed.
No. 2. Father works in woolen mills; makes a good living; gives wages to mother, who attends to all her wants.
No. 3. Father is clerk in tobacco store, makes a good living; four in family; been to public school; well dressed.
No. 4. Lives with mother, who is divorced; she keeps a small milk dairy; well dressed; public school education.
No. 6. Father intemperate; mother looks after house; poorly dressed; not well educated.

UPHOLSTERING—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with mother, who is a widow, and dependent on self and one brother; well dressed and well educated.
No. 2. Graduate of High School; well dressed.
No. 3. One son works, and does the greater part of supporting; been to public school; well dressed.

No. 4. Lives with mother, who is a widow; two sons work, and live with mother, and help to support; been to public school.
No. 5. Very well off; been to public school.
No. 6. Educated in New Jersey; well dressed.
No. 7. Lives with aunt, who keeps house; well dressed; well educated.
No. 8. Lives with parents; gives wages to mother.
No. 9. Lives with mother, who is a widow; two young children; good education.
No. 10. Mother dead; father idle, and fond of drink; well dressed.

UMBRELLA MAKERS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father works; makes a good living; gives wages to mother; dressed well; been to public school.
No. 2. Lives with parents; father works; gives wages to mother; well dressed; been to public school.
No. 3. Lives with mother, and gives wages to mother, who is a widow; educated in a convent; well dressed.
No. 4. Plainly dressed; poorly educated.
No. 7. Lives with mother; father drinks, and earns very little; five children to support; gives all wages to mother; poorly dressed; not well educated.

WINERY, SAN JOSÉ—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father a merchant in San José, now traveling for his health; just finished at the Normal School; father very well off; don't have to work; well dressed.
No. 2. Has income more than required for support; well educated and well dressed.
No. 3. Lives with parents; father a merchant; works only for pin money.
No. 4. Mother a widow, well off; other means of support; nice home in country; gives wages to mother; well dressed.
No. 5. Graduate of High School; uses wages as she likes; not necessary for her to work; father a merchant; well dressed.

GOLDEN GATE WOOLEN MILLS, SAN FRANCISCO—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents who own their home, which is a large, old-fashioned house, out of the city proper, and on a broad avenue; father failed in the brewing business; children had to go to work; gives wages to mother, who looks after her welfare; father not working; plainly dressed; good education.
No. 2. Lives with parents in a cosy little cottage; gives wages to mother, who supplies her wants and pleasures; dresses well; grammar school education.
No. 3. Two sisters and brother own the home; brother married; sisters live with him; parents dead; pretty cottage; well dressed; a good grammar school education.

SAN JOSÉ WOOLEN MILLS—HOME CONDITIONS.

No. 1. Lives with parents; father works on thrashing machine; has nice house; pays $15 per month rent; pays mother a certain amount, and knows nothing of expenses.
No. 2. Lives at home with parents and sisters; does not have to work, but does it so as to get clothes and other things which her parents would not be able to give her; father is a mechanic; two sisters work; good education.
No. 3. Lives with parents at home; father laboring man; girl works to help support family; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 4. Lives at home with mother; father dead; mother owns home; girl works only for money to buy dress; knows nothing of expenses; well educated.
No. 5. Lives at home with her husband; knows nothing of expenses, except that it takes all of her's and her husband's to support themselves; husband a laborer.
No. 6. Father deserted mother, who is sick most of the time; brother does everything for her; all her money goes to doctor; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 7. Lives with parents; works only for money for clothes; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 8. Has twelve brothers and sisters; father works on farm; gives all wages to mother; knows nothing of expenses; two brothers and two sisters working in the same mill.
No. 9. Lives with parents; well educated; father works on a thrashing machine.
No. 10. Lives at home with mother; father dead; gives wages to mother; knows nothing of expenses; mother works out; lives very badly, and apparently poor; but little education.
No. 11. Lives in boarding house of five boarders; very comfortable; could support herself well if mill ran all the time; she is sick and should be in hospital; has no relatives.
No. 12. Lives with parents; four brothers and sisters work and give wages to mother; father don't work; have two rooms for seven people.
No. 13. Lives with parents; one sister working in same factory; all wages to parents; helps to support family; father works out by the day; very poor; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 14. Father owns house of eight rooms; well educated; all earnings to parents; knows nothing of expenses.
No. 16. Lives with parents; father is a mechanic; mother does not work; only works for pin money; well educated; knows nothing of expenses.

CHAPTER III.

WAGES PAID TO WORKINGWOMEN.

The rate of wages paid to women in California does not compare so favorably with the rates paid in the Eastern States as do the wages of men, for the reason that Chinese come more into competition with the women than with the men. This is especially the case among seamstresses, and in nearly all our factories. The coolie is the irrepressible foe of the female wage earner in every department of labor which requires merely the skillful use of hand and eye. He will cook, wash, iron, sew, and do everything in the line of work which, in other climes and under more favored conditions, is considered the exclusive province of woman. In other lines of labor the wages paid to females in this State are generally higher than elsewhere, such as teachers, artists, saleswomen, clerks, etc. As an offset to this, rent, fuel, and clothing cost more in California than in the Eastern States. One great advantage, however, which all our wage earners in California enjoy, is that they can work all the year round, not being compelled to lay up by intense heat in summer or extreme cold in winter. Inspection of the table giving the wages of females will show that the tendency in every field of manual labor in which a woman can engage is to limit her to a dollar a day. At this rate a self-supporting woman has all she can do to make both ends meet. It is a never ending struggle with her to procure the necessaries of life without the means to lay anything by for a rainy day. She has to pay, at the lowest, from four to five dollars a week for board and lodging, which leaves her a margin of only from one to two dollars a week for clothing, car fare, and all other expenses.

A woman who has to depend upon her needle for a living is not better off in this State than the needlewoman in the Eastern States. In some departments, such as shirt-making, she is actually worse off. Where a woman can do the work required she will usually be employed at a much lower rate of wages than what would be offered to a man, or what a man would accept. The supply of female wage earners bears a far greater proportion to the demand than in the case of males. This tends greatly to keep woman's wages down. Men complain that as the sphere of workingwomen increases it makes inroads upon their lines of labor, with a consequent reduction of wages. Tailors, boot and shoemakers, bookbinders, printers, and other mechanics feel the result of this competition. If women would or could uphold the standard of wages the men would not have such reason for complaint. The keen rivalry for the means of living forces them to offer their services at rates far below the standard paid to men in the same line of business. Salesmen employed in dry goods, fancy goods, and similar establishments, complain that women offer to take their places at from one half to one third of the salaries which they receive. Instances are frequent where a young man and woman standing side by side in the same department, the former receives double the salary paid the latter. It was given in evidence before me that in a certain large printing establishment in Oakland, male proof readers were paid $18 per week, while female proof readers were paid only half that sum, or $9 per week. In the same establishment journeymen compositors were paid $15, while journeywomen were paid only $9 per week. The result of such competition is generally the lowering down of the men instead of the leveling up of the women. Men are by such a process often forced to quit the field and seek new pastures. Some trade organizations find it to their best interest to encourage women

of their craft to join their unions. The Typographical Union is an instance of this commendable course. By stretching out the hand of fellowship to female compositors, and sustaining them by all the means at their command in demanding full Union wages, they level up the woman and maintain the standard of wages for both. Equal work, equal pay, is the motto of the Typographical Union.

MALE AND FEMALE WORKERS COMPARED.

If a man's work surpasses the woman's in finish or strength, as in the tailoring business, of course he deserves and should receive a higher rate of compensation. Salesmen are preferred to saleswomen in our large dry and fancy goods houses, because, as the proprietors of some have so informed me, they have more tact and take more pains to sell goods than the women. Men are naturally not so disposed to fritter away the time (which in a manager's eye is money) in gossip with customers as women.

A prominent dry goods merchant of San Francisco said to me: "Women make excellent saleswomen in some departments—cloaks for instance—but there her usefulness in our line of business ends. She cannot manage the stock nor keep her department in such a well ordered condition as a man. For this reason in eastern houses, where women have displaced men behind the counter, it takes nearly twice the number of the former to do the work, and then," said he, "the departments do not present the neat, business-like appearance they do when managed by men. Women are not so subject to discipline as men, and for that reason must be constantly watched." In the dry goods houses of Los Angeles women are extensively employed as saleswomen, but in San Francisco, Sacramento, and other cities, this is not the case except in a few establishments.

While men glovemakers are paid from $15 to $25 per week, women are paid only from $5 to $12. Candymakers receive: men, $9 to $18 per week; women, $4 to $10 per week; bookbinders: men, $18 to $24; women, $9 to $12; bagmakers: men, $15 to $20; women, $7 to $12 per week. Salesmen in dry goods and fancy goods, and similar stores, have salaries generally running from $50 to $100 per month; saleswomen, from $20 to $50.

Much of this is owing, no doubt, to the surplus of available female labor over that of male, and much is owing also to the want of organization among the women themselves. There are many girls whose parents can support them, and who work only for the sake of earning pin money. They do not have to depend upon their salaries, and consequently can afford to work cheap. By so doing they cut down the wages of those who are obliged to live upon their earnings.

In a great many occupations the ruinous competition of Chinese labor has degraded and lowered the price of white labor. As an illustration of this fact, by reference to the tabulated rates of wages it will be seen that girls are paid in some establishments from 60 cents to $1 85 per dozen for making shirts, prices varying according to quality. One dollar and seventy-five cents may then be considered a good price for making a dozen shirts. In a dozen shirts there are four hundred and fifty yards of tucking, seventy-two yards of seams, thirty-two yards of hemming, thirty-four yards of gathering back, thirty-six yards of bands, twenty-four yards of bands over gathering, making six hundred and thirty-six yards of sewing—price, $1 75. Out of that they pay for thread, 50 cents. They must go and get the material, which is cut for them, and take it back home; car fare is 10 cents; net result, $1 15. The best workwomen cannot make over two and a half dozen, which amounts to $2 87 for the week's work. The ordinary

shirt with cuffs has eleven buttonholes, three worked eyeletholes, three buttons and two gussets to sew on. In other words, they are required to make one hundred and thirty-two buttonholes, thirty-six eyeletholes, and sew on thirty-six buttons and twenty-four gussets, all of the work to be well done, for $1 50. What must be the hard fate of the girl who has to do all this amount of labor for the paltry sum of *60 cents*, for that is the rate paid for some work.

WOMEN AS TELEGRAPH OPERATORS.

In employments where nervous energy and power of brain are brought into direct competition, as in telegraphy, the man is usually the better worker. Mr. Thomas O'Reilly, prominent in the Telegraphers' Union of America, a gentleman of great experience in his profession, says in this connection: "Women are engaged in the profession of telegraphy to a considerable extent; but the average salary of female operators, although they are required to work the same number of hours per day, is much less than the average salary of male operators." In reply to the question as to whether, generally speaking, females are as good as males, Mr. O'Reilly says: "Well, with all due deference to the capabilities of the opposite sex, I do not think so. While there are many capable and expert in the profession, their numbers are limited. In cases where female operators do equally as good work, they do not receive the same remuneration, although I am decidedly of the opinion that they should. In fact, one of the stipulations in the bill of grievances in 1883 was 'equal pay for both sexes.' Female operators are not usually as successful as those of the opposite sex, but it is because of their physical inability only, and not for any lack of skill. It is not to be expected that their powers of endurance would enable them to perform the excessive work done by male operators."

WOMEN AS TEACHERS.

As an instructor of youth woman has won her place to stand upon the same plane as man, yet in most States of the Union she receives a much lower rate of compensation. It is to the credit of California that a law has been placed on her statute books to prohibit such unjust discrimination, which reads as follows: "Females employed as teachers in the public schools of this State shall in all cases receive the same compensation as is allowed male teachers for like services, when holding the same grade certificates."

SALARIES OF FEMALE SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The average monthly salary paid to female teachers throughout the State during the last school year was $64 12, and the average to female teachers in San Francisco, $75 16. Very few schools pay below $50 per month. The length of time for which school is maintained each year varies in different parts of the State from six to ten months. For every position at all desirable in the schools there are many applicants, and in San Francisco large political influence is generally required to secure the lowest grade class in our public schools.

Each of the fifty-two counties has its own County Board of Education, which examines teachers and grants certificates of three grades: 1. Grammar School course certificates, valid for four years, and authorizing the holder to teach in a High or Grammar School; 2. Grammar grade certificates, valid for three years, and authorizing the holder to teach a Grammar

or Primary School; 3. Primary certificates, valid for two years, authorizing the holder to teach a Primary School. The certificates so issued are valid in the counties only in which they are granted. The only credentials from other States upon which County Boards may issue certificates without examination, are State Normal School diplomas and State life diplomas.

The following exhibit shows the salaries paid to female teachers in San Francisco, according to the municipal report for 1886–87:

Principals of Grammar Schools, from $100 to $200 per month. Vice-Principals and inspecting teachers, from $100 to $175 per month.

Heads of departments in High Schools, $155 per month; assistants, $140 per month; teacher of music, $50 per month; teacher of drawing, $60 per month.

Principals of Primary Schools, from $100 to $150 per month.

Assistants in Grammar and Primary Schools, $50 to $80 per month.

Substitute teachers, who are only occasionally employed, get $1 a day for reporting for duty. When employed, they receive $3 per day; but for evening schools, only $2 per evening.

(See Table D, "Wages and Hours of Labor of Females.")

TABLE D.

Wages and Hours of Labor of Females.

Occupation.	Highest Wages Weekly	Lowest Wages Weekly	Average Wages Weekly	Monthly Wages.	Wages per Piece.	Hours of Daily Labor.
Artificial flowers	$7 00	$3 00	$5 00			8½
Awnings	7 00	3 00	6 00			10
Bagmakers	7 50	4 00	6 00		20c per 100	10½
Baskets, fruit	5 00	3 00	5 00		7c per 100	10
Bookbinding	10 00	5 00	8 00			9
Bookfolders	10 00	5 00	7 00		5c a 100	9
Boots and shoes	12 00	5 00	7 50			9
Boxes, cigar	9 00	3 50	6 00		70 to 95c 100	9
Boxes, paper	10 00	3 00	7 00		50c to $1 50 100	9¼
Boxes, jewelry	6 00	4 00	6 00			9
Buttonhole makers, shoes	12 00	6 00	10 00			9
Brushes	9 00	6 00	7 00			9½
Bustles	9 00	5 00	7 00		12½c per doz.	9
Candymakers	10 00	3 50	6 00			10
Canmakers	8 00	5 00	6 00			10
Caps	9 00	4 50	7 50			9
Cartridges	6 00	6 00	6 00			9
Carpet sewers	9 00	5 00	9 00			9
Chair caners	9 00	3 00	6 00			10
Chocolate factory, packing	6 00	4 00	6 00			10
Cloaks	9 00	3 00	7 50			9
Coffee and spices	5 00	4 00	4 50			10
Collars and cuffs	8 00	5 00	7 00			
Compositors	17 00	3 00	6 00		25 to 40c 1,000	9
Confectionery	12 00	6 00	7 50			10
Copyists	12 00	6 00	9 00			
Cooks				$25 to $40, board and lodging		
Cigarmakers	8 00	3 00	6 00			9¼
Cigar boxes	9 00	3 50	6 00			9
Cords and fringes	8 00	3 00	6 00			10
Corsets	9 00	5 00	7 50			10
Cotton mills	12 00	3 00	7 50			10⅓
Cracker factory, packing	12 50	3 00	7 50			10
Domestics				$15 to $25, board and lodging		
Dressmakers	9 00	3 00	5 00			9
Dress trimmings	7 00	4 00	5 00			9
Dyeing and scouring	9 00	7 00	8 00			9
Embroidery	9 00	6 00	7 50			9
Fancy boxes	6 00	4 00	5 00			10

TABLE D—Continued.

Occupation.	Highest Wages Weekly	Lowest Wages Weekly	Average Wages Weekly	Monthly Wages.	Wages per Piece.	Hours of Daily Labor
Feathers	$5 00	$5 00	$5 00			9
Fringes and tassels	8 00	3 00	6 00			10
Fruit canning and packing	9 00	3 00	6 00			10
Furs	7 00	3 00	5 00			10
Gloves	12 00	5 00	7 50		$1 to $1 75 doz.	9
Hair dressers	15 00	5 00	10 00			9
Hair, human, workers	20 00	5 00	8 00			9
Harness braiders	10 00	3 00	7 50			9
Hosiery, factory	15 00	3 00	6 00			10
Hats and caps	9 00	4 50	7 50			9
Hatters, trimmers	18 00	6 00	10 00			9
Hoopskirts	8 00	4 00	7 00			9
Japanning	7 00	3 00	6 00			10
Jute mills	10 00	2 40	6 00			10½
Knitting, hosiery	9 00	3 00	6 00			10
Lace workers	7 00	4 00	5 50			9½
Laundry	12 00	7 00	8 00			11
Lithographers	7 00	4 00	6 00			8
Mantles and shawls	12 00	5 00	8 00			10
Mattresses	15 00	7 00	9 00		15 to 25c mattress (tick)	
Matches	8 00	4 00	6 00			9½
Millinery	9 00	3 00	6 00			
Neckties	9 00	4 00	7 00			9
Overalls	7 50	2 50	5 00			10
Operators sewing machine	15 00	6 00	8 00			10
Paper boxes	10 00	3 00	7 00		50c to $1 50 100	9¼
Parasols	8 00	5 00	7 50			10
Printers, press feeders	7 00	4 00	7 00			8
Printers, job	12 00	3 00	7 00			9
Salt packers	6 00	6 00	6 00			10
Saleswomen	15 00	5 00	8 00			10
Shirtmakers	9 00	2 50	6 00		50c to $2 50 doz.	9
Silk weavers	12 00	9 00	10 00			9
Silk spools	5 75	3 00	4 50			10
Soap packers	7 00	3 00	5 00			10
Straw workers, hats	9 00	3 00	6 00			10
Skirts	8 00	4 00	7 00			9
Suspenders	9 00	6 00	7 00			8
Tailoring	9 00	3 00	5 00			9½
Tacks and small nails	9 00	3 00	6 00			10
Teachers, public school				$50 to $125		6
Teachers, private school				$35 to $75		6
Teachers, music					50c to $1 lesson	
Trunks	7 00	3 00	6 00			9½
Type foundry	9 00	9 00	9 00			10
Typewriters	20 00	5 00	10 00			9
Typesetters	17 00	3 00	6 00		25c to 40c 1,000	9
Tin can makers	8 00	5 00	6 00			10
Tents	9 00	5 00	6 50			10
Underwear	8 50	4 50	6 00			9
Umbrellas	18 00	6 00	11 00			10
Upholsterers, draping	12 00	6 00	9 00			8
Valises	7 50	4 00	7 00			9½
Waiters	7 00	5 00	6 00			11
Weavers	12 00	7 50	9 00			10
Woolen mills	12 00	6 00	7 50			10
Winery, labelling and packing	4 00	4 00	4 00			10

CHAPTER IV.

TREATMENT OF WORKINGWOMEN.

Factory girls are not numerous in California, and as long as we have the Chinese with us it is well that it should be so, if both are to be employed in the same establishment. Managers of mills and factories are beginning to realize the fact that they must depend in the near future upon other help than the Chinese, and are trying to weed them out gradually. The avenues open to working girls in the principal cities and towns in the State have, therefore, so far been much restricted. Workingmen have unions, lodges, and benevolent associations, so that when out of work, or laid up by sickness, they are looked after and provided for. Workingwomen, on the contrary, have no such props, no such helping hands to fall back upon. With a large number of self-dependent girls it is "root, hog, or die." If defrauded, oppressed, or imposed upon, they have no one to protect or succor them, no influence around or behind to ward off and shield them from the grasping conscienceless employer living on the produce of their unrequited toil.

A lady interested in the work of the bureau, at my suggestion, dressed herself as a working girl and went to work for a firm that kept a standing advertisement in the newspaper for apprentices and for experienced hands. She applied for work as an expert in sewing, though not experienced in the coat-making or tailoring, in which line the firm was engaged. Here is the result of a little more than one week's experience:

I went to work for —— —— January twenty-fourth; worked seven and one half days. Agreement was to serve one week as apprentice. He would not guarantee any set wages, but said he would give good wages. I received 50 cents for work done. At the end of the first week he said he would give about $2, and after that would raise the amount 50 cents if I continued to improve. First week there were twelve girls all working on same condition—only two earning wages. One ran a machine and got $3 50 a week. The other got $2 50 a week. The rest received nothing. Worked from seven A. M. to six P. M., and had to work hard; one hour for lunch. He advertised in San Francisco papers to get new girls, as apprentices on coats, as operators, finishers, steady work and good pay. He would promise from $6 to $15 after girls knew their business. Would say they would learn the business in a month. Between twenty-five and thirty girls were taken in during my time, only two remaining over a week. His main object was to induce girls to come and work for him for nothing. When it came to the time for receiving wages, he offered them such small wages, they could not accept it. And when wages were due, instead of paying them promptly he told the girls that they would have to come around again, as he had no money about him. The business of cloak making was not taught there, as he only made the cheapest kind of slop article.

SWEATERS.

The class of men engaged in this kind of business are known as "sweaters," or middlemen. They supply wholesale clothiers, and some merchant tailors of the "Cheap John" class, with coats, pants, and vests, at so much per dozen. The prices paid for coats rate from $9 to $42 per dozen. The lowest in price are simply overalls.

As they are compelled to do cheap work in order to secure any, they naturally resort to the employment of cheap labor. Unfortunately, women who work at tailoring are unorganized, and they are therefore compelled to work for what they can get. These botch tailors take advantage of their employés' poverty, and force them to work at their own terms. They have no feeling for any one, but simply live to make money for themselves, no matter who suffers in the meantime. Any ordinary sewing girl should make at least $1 a day, and some earn as much as $2 50. To force them,

then, to work for $2 a week, simply because they have an advantage over the girls, is inhuman.

DECOY ADVERTISEMENTS.

Advertisements appear daily in the newspapers, in which inducements are thrown out to young women and girls to learn trades. They state that the workers will be either paid while learning or will be paid after a week or two. Here are a few specimens, taken from the San Francisco newspapers:

A NEW CLASS IN THE EUROPEAN ART OF DRESSMAKING WILL COMmence January third; no scholars taken unless they can sew; can make your own dresses while learning; positions after learning.

OPERATORS, FINISHERS, AND APPRENTICES ON COATS; STEADY WORK; good pay.

GOOD SEWERS TO LEARN CORSET MAKING; WAGES PAID.

APPRENTICES WANTED ON CLOAKS; PAID WHILE LEARNING.

WANTED—GIRLS TO LEARN A TRADE; PAID WHILE LEARNING.

This offer to pay while learning is often a mere decoy. A dollar or two a week is promised at the start, with some proviso that the girl must be able to do so and so. It is generally found that she cannot do the thing provised to the satisfaction of her employer, and consequently she loses the miserable pittance promised.

THE SWEATING SYSTEM.

The paying while learning apprenticeship advertisement is often resorted to by the unprincipled sweater, who is only on the lookout for cheap labor. With this class the working girl is always an "apprentice," and her wages will remain at from $1 to $2 per week as long as the sweater can keep it at that figure.

The sweater is the middleman who contracts with the large manufacturers for quantities of work, and then gets it done by poor people at the lowest possible cost, making big profits without using any capital, skill, or labor of his own. The etymology of the word "sweater" is uncertain, but the name may possibly be derived from the old criminal offense of clipping or grinding some of the precious metal in the handling of gold coin, which is called "sweating." It would be well if the law could reach this despicable class who speculate on the poverty and helplessness of young girls. Some of the large firms protest that they know nothing about the sweating practices, but when they find competing sweaters contracting to do their work below living rates, surely they must suspect that the wretched creatures who do the work for the sweaters are not fairly treated. The only way to reach the sweaters and put a stop to their nefarious method of doing business is by public exposure.

The "San Francisco Chronicle" did some good work in this direction by exposing a certain sweating coat-making concern in that city, in an article which appeared February 2, 1888. This was followed by an open investigation on the part of the bureau, at the rooms, 220 Sutter Street, February 7, 1888.

The following testimony, which was published in part at the time by the press of San Francisco, fully substantiates all that has been said about the treatment of girls by sweaters:

INVESTIGATION INTO THE TREATMENT OF GIRLS BY "SWEATERS" OR MIDDLEMEN.

SAN FRANCISCO, February 7, 1888.

MISS JENNIE MCABEE.

Called.

By COMMISSIONER TOBIN—How long have you worked in the factory? Answer—Until yesterday.

Q. For how long? A. About four weeks.

Q. When you looked for that situation was it in reply to an advertisement that you went there? A. It was. Yes, sir.

Q. Which of the two men did you see? A. Well, Mr. Breitstein was alone then. He was not in partnership with anybody.

Q. What arrangements did you make at the time? A. The arrangement at that time was simply that I went into the shop. I asked him what my wages were to be, and he said that would be according to what I did. That was not very satisfactory to me. I am not a beginner. I have to support myself. I can run a machine; and at the end of a week I asked him what I had coming to me. Then he told me that it was usual for the girls to work two or three weeks for nothing. "But," he said, "I will pay you $2 50 a week for encouragement." And he said he would pay $5 after the fourth week; and he asked me if I would work at what work came into the shop, and I said that I wanted to be an operator. And then asked him if he would give me $6. His wife was there and we had a talk together. And then he found out that he could get no girls to take my place, and therefore he treated me individually well, or I would not have stayed another day for him.

Q. Did he pay you at the end of the first week? A. No, sir. He said it was not the custom to pay, but after a little he said if I would come back on Monday he would pay me Monday night.

Q. Did he give any advance for the second week? A. Yes, sir; $3 50.

Q. And the next week after? A. He gave me $3 the next week, instead of $3 50. The fourth week he gave me $4. I told him I could not support myself on that and could not work for that; his wife had promised me $6, and he had agreed then to do it. And then he said if I would stay there for two months and work for $6, he would raise my wages a dollar a month, until I got $10 a week.

Q. Did he pay you at the end of the week? A. He did not pay on Saturday, and he told me to call again, and then he did not pay me. He said in the future he would pay on Saturday, after this came out in the papers. Then he paid the first week regularly. The next I do not know.

Q. Then he did not pay on the stated day? A. Well, he told me to come on Monday, but he did not pay. After he dissolved partnership, he said he would pay on Saturday, at four o'clock. The last week we did not work on Saturday; he gave me $4.

Q. Had you any notion of coat-making before you went to him? A. I had not. He had an experienced hand staying by me. He said I was not worth the money. But I soon found that she did not work any faster than I could, nor better. There is not much to learn; if a girl knows anything about sewing, if she is any girl at all, she will know how to do it in a very short time.

Q. What kind of work was it? A. It was shop work on coats. He told me he got $3 50 a dozen for them, and as far as custom coats are concerned, he did not make half a dozen of them since the time that I have been in there.

Q. Then the only way that you were instructed was by the hands that were there before? A. If I had depended upon them I would never have learned anything. They depended as much upon me. I was the only one in there that understood anything of it. He showed me something once, never twice; I am sure that he never laid his hand on my work twice. And as far as being a tailoress, a girl can work there for years and not be a tailoress. The work he has will not teach them to go into another shop. To turn and baste, and turn a coat and baste it around, and put on buttons after he marks it, and fell the sleeves in, that is the hand work that is to be done, and any woman can do that, and ought to be able to earn a dollar a day by that.

Q. A young woman that would learn the business there, would not be qualified to go into a merchant tailors? A. No, sir, she could not do it. There were hardly any in there that understood the work. The first girl was a good tailoress, and got $9 a week, and he said he would give her $10. She quit after the first week, and after that he has not had a tailoress in the shop, and has complained all the time that the girls there cannot do the work.

Q. How many girls were employed there while you were there, I mean on an average, what number? A. We had about ten or twelve. It is very hard to give an estimate, because a girl would come in the morning and another take her place in the afternoon. He had no regular girls.

Q. As far as your experience went, what would be the average time a girl would stay? A. Some would stay a week, and some, perhaps, two or three. One girl did, and he had to pay her. I think she was the only girl that ever worked for him and got anywhere near even.

Q. Is it a habit to keep constantly changing the girls? A. Yes, sir, ever since I have

been in the shop it is. I was very much surprised when he told me he would give me $2 50 a week for encouragement. When a woman, who can run a machine, works from seven to six, she certainly must be said to earn her money when she demands a dollar a day.

Q. Were any of the goods destroyed in the shop? A. Not that I know of. There was some machine work. One or two of the girls had never run a machine before, and they did not work as nice as they might have done, but he never gave any of it back that I know of.

Miss Marguerite Ford.

Called.

Question—What is your name? Answer—Miss Ford.

Q. How long have you been at work? A. Three weeks next Saturday.

Q. What arrangements did you make? A. Well, I did not make any special arrangement about wages. He told me I should be paid from the beginning. I had been working at dressmaking for four years, and he told me as I knew how to make it, I should get wages right away. It would be all the way from $10 to $16. I worked all the week and all the time next week without asking for any wages, and then the following Monday after the week was out I asked him for the pay what I should receive. And then he said it was usual for his girls to work one or two weeks for nothing, and I told him that was not what he had told me when I spoke first with him. Had I known that I would not have come there. I have to make my living and could not live on what he offered me; that was $2 50 the next week. And then I said I would have to leave him. Then he said he would pay $2 50 for the first week, and then he said after the first week he would pay me $3. That is to say, the first week was for nothing, and the second week he would pay $2 50, and for the last $3. He said he did better by me because I understood the work, and he could afford to give me better wages than the others.

Q. Did he hold out any inducement to you to stay? A. Oh, yes; after a couple of weeks he would make it all right; I would be able to make a dollar a day. I told him I would accept a dollar a day to start in with, and he said he could not afford to give it; when he got better kind of work, custom work, then he would pay it me.

Q. Were you taught any knowledge of the business by Mr. Breitstein when there? A. There was nothing to teach; I could sew all right.

Q. Then he did not teach you anything in the art of coat-making? A. No, sir; he did not teach me anything.

Q. If you had worked the third week in full what would you have received? A. $3.

Q. Did you see any work destroyed by the girls? A. No, sir; there was nothing destroyed while I was there. If there was anything spoiled it cannot have amounted to much.

Q. How much custom work did you see done for the merchant tailors? A. Since I have been there, about four coats.

Q. The work generally done there was for the wholesale dealers; the cheapest kind of work? A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did he tell you that the money he paid you was not for wages, only for spending money? A. No, sir; he did not. He said he would like to give me more. He said he thought that I was worth more, but he could not afford it at present, until he could get some more custom work.

Q. What did he say he received for the work? A. He said he received about six bits a coat.

Q. Did Mr. Breitstein ask you to sign a paper to the effect that you were satisfied with the admirable manner in which he conducted his establishment? A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did you sign it? A. No, sir.

Q. On what grounds? A. I said if I signed it I would not have told the truth; I was not satisfied with the wages. He tried his best to make me sign it yesterday—both he and his wife. He said if he had a girl and she would not sign it he would discharge her; and then I told him he could discharge me, for I was not going to sign it.

Q. Do you know how many girls received $12? A. He has none.

Q. Do you know of two girls paid $5 a week? A. No, sir.

Q. Do you know of any girl in his employ who has been in there for more than a month? A. No, sir; I am there longer than anybody else at present.

Q. You came there in answer to his advertisement? A. Yes, sir.

Miss Lulu Donagan.

Called.

Question—How long were you at Mr. Breitstein's? Answer—A week and a day.

Q. Did you go to him in reply to his advertisement? A. Yes.

Q. When you went to Mr. Breitstein what agreement did you make? A. He said I should work for the first week for nothing and then he told me to come on Saturday and sign my name, and next week he would pay me $2, and next week $2 50; he would first want to know me. And this morning he told me he had changed his mind, and would only pay me four bits. That was after I had signed for a week.

Q. Was what you signed a contract? A. Yes, sir. I told him I was satisfied to work for $2 a week, and this morning he told me he would only give me 50 cents a week.

Q. Was it because he was displeased with the work? A. I do not know. The work was all right.

Q. Did he make use to you of the expression that this money was for spending money? A. No, sir; he did not say anything about spending money.

Q. Did you accept his generous offer? A. No, sir; I said I was satisfied to work for $2 a week, but not for 50 cents.

MISS MCABEE.

Recalled.

Question—How many pressermen have been employed there since you were there, Miss McAbee? Answer—I could not tell the number. The pressermen have come and gone just like the girls. And if he treated them like that, I do not think they were wrong.

MISS MOLLIE VIZZARD.

Called.

Question—How long have you worked there? Answer—For two months. I started to work for him in August and quit in October.

Q. Commencing what day? A. The eighth of August.

Q. Was it in reply to his advertisement? A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did you go in as apprentice, or as an experienced hand? A. As apprentice. I never worked a day before.

Q. And what arrangement did you make with Mr. Breitstein? A. I went there in reply to his call on a Saturday night, and he told me to come Monday morning. He said for me to work a couple of weeks for nothing, after I had told him that I was not an experienced hand. The second week I asked him what he was going to pay me. He started to say that I had promised to come here to work for two weeks for nothing. I said to him I wouldn't work any more for nothing, and he said he would see. Well, I said, I don't work for nothing. All right, he said, I will give you enough for your board. The third week again I asked him for pay, and he told me to wait. Then he gave me a dollar, and I said that was very encouraging [laughing]. He said it was for candy.

Q. What did he give you at the end of the fourth week? A. One dollar and a half. I asked him if he thought he could live on $1 50; I could not. He said, well, he thought that ought to be enough for any girl apprentice. I told him I knew that I could sew all right, and why should I not get more if I was worth it? Then he gave me first $2, and the next week $3, and when I got out of the employ he told me he would pay me up, and to come to his house; but I got tired of running there.

Q. Did he promptly pay his debts? A. He did not. Sometimes he said he did not get pay for his own work, and he could not pay us, and then I would get paid for two weeks.

Q. Did he employ more than ten or twelve girls there during the time you were there? Taking all those he brought in, were there more than ten or twelve? A. I think so. Sometimes a girl would come in the morning and leave in the afternoon, and others would stay there only two days or so.

Q. Did any of the girls who worked two or three days of the week receive any money for candy that you are aware of? A. Only one girl. I think he gave her four bits. One girl worked there for six months; very nearly six months. That is what she told me.

Q. What work were you at? A. I was hand-sewing; basting, you might say.

Q. You were there for two months; did you get $3 for the other time? A. No, sir; $2 was the highest I ever received.

Q. What class of work did you see? A. Shopwork and some custom work.

Q. How much of it was custom work? A. I do not know any of the merchant tailors. But on the custom work he had no tags on the coats. For a merchant tailor he had the other labels.

Q. You would know the difference for the wholesale dealers? A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did you see many coats for the merchant tailors? A. No, sir; very few.

Q. Did you see any coats destroyed by the girls? A. No, sir; but I have seen some of hem destroyed by himself by the bad cutting of them.

Q. But none by the sewing of the girls? A. No, sir; because he had a watch over the girls and they couldn't destroy anything.

Q. Did you ever see him tear the coats open again on account of the bad work? A. No, sir; none except the wadding of a sleeve, and that was in consequence of bad machine sewing, and also the bad cutting. Fifty-seven coats came back one day; that was on account of the back lining. It was on a Saturday. He had the lining made smaller, and a piece put in the shoulder, and made them up again; that was on account of the bad cutting.

MISS ANNIE MCGUIRK.

Called.

Question—How long have you worked there? Answer—I worked there for five weeks.

Q. Was it in answer to his advertisement that you went there also? A. Yes, sir.

Q. What arrangement did you enter into? A. My mother went with me. He said in two or three days he would tell me how much I was worth. On Saturday night he told me I had to serve for three weeks, and I served four weeks without pay.

Q. Did he give you any money for candy or car fare? A. Yes, sir; he gave me four bits.

Q. What for? A. For spending money.

Q. That was at the end of the fourth week? A. Yes, sir; and after the fifth week he gave me four bits, too.

Q. Did you say anything to him about wages? A. When this young lady asked for

her's, then I asked, too. When I went back Monday morning, he said he had no further use for me.

Q. Did you do any work there for the money? A. I think I did; I did a great deal of work; all the felling of sleeves, lining, and basting, and filling in pieces, too.

Q. Now, could you tell me at how many coats a week you did that work, or in a day? A. I do not know. I can say that one day I felled over seven or eight sleeve linings, and had to work very quick for it; that was for half a day.

Q. That would be at the rate of sixteen for a day? A. Yes, sir.

Q. What wages did you receive at the end of the fifth week? A. The same—four bits.

Q. Then, altogether, you got a dollar A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did he hold out any inducement for you to remain? A. No, he did not give me a chance. He told me he had no further use for me.

Q. Was it hand-sewing you did, or did you work on the machine at all? A. About half the day on both; I felled some sleeve linings, that was all. When I was there for the second week, I was told that he had fooled other girls that way.

Q. Did any one show you how to do the work? A. All I had to do was to look at the other girls round me.

Q. Did Mr. Brietstein show you? A. No, sir; he never put a needle on the work in my hand.

Q. Did you have to run messages for them, or other errands? A. I went twice to the machine shop, and on some four errands since I was there.

Q. Had you to do any outside work—to sweep the floor, or such? A. One day he told me to do that, and I told him I did not come there for that.

Q. Did any of the hands show you how to work on the machine? A. No, sir; and he never showed me anything.

MISS PRISCILLA COHEN.

Called.

Question—How long have you worked there? Answer—About one week and a day.

Q. Was it in answer to his advertisement that you went there? A. Yes, sir.

Q. What arrangement did you make? A. That I should receive $3 for the first week. My sister went with me.

Q. Did you go there as an apprentice? A. No, sir. I could baste on a coat.

Q. You had some experience? A. Yes, sir. I had worked for four or five months.

Q. Did you ever work for him before? A. No, sir; but long before that I knew what he was; that is, I knew of him, but when I went there I did not know that that was the man. After I had worked four days, and found out who it was, I did not want to work there any more. He said that I had better come up again, and he would pay me $4, and he told me to sign my name in a book, and I did it.

Q. Did you read the paper? A. No, sir; he just handed it to me, and said, "Here, sign your name."

Q. Did he tell you why he wanted you to sign? A. No, sir; he gave me my money first, and then just told me to sign my name.

Q. Did he read what it was in this book? A. No, sir.

Q. Your name was the first? A. Yes, sir. Then after I had signed it he told me I needn't come on Monday any more. I came this morning, and he said, "Just sit down and do the work." And he said, "I will pay her four bits a week, and I will pay you $2 50." That was after he promised to give me $3.

The several young women declared that the experience they had had with Mr. Breitstein was not different from what others had at other places. There seemed to be plenty of girls to take situations. It was difficult to get a place, even if work was offered for nothing or very little for the first weeks. The average wages were between $4 and $3 a week; $6 would be considered as very good for a woman in San Francisco. One of the girls said that she received at present $7 50 per week, but that was at a place in the Mission, and that in the city wages would range at about $4 or $5. Another remarked that the work which she could get barely assisted her to subsist. When she wanted to get some new clothes she had to go out as chambermaid. The reason that she did not do this all the time, was that the position was not so independent. Everybody seemed to jeer at a servant girl. Then the treatment, in most of the houses, was so unkind that it was hard to stand it. A girl who had a little education—sometimes more than those in the house—was not allowed to see any friends in the house. She could often not invite any lady friend to her room, and as for seeing a gentleman friend or receiving a caller, that was quite out of the question. Then, many families insisted upon the girl washing windows, and that she would absolutely refuse to do. Any other work she was perfectly willing

to do. The best position was in the larger hotels. There the work was pretty hard, but they had most of their Sunday free, and shorter hours. The positions got through the employment offices were often of the worst kind, and she had heard from many of her friends who had gone to such, that they could not stand it more than a day. Yet when they went there they had done so with the best wish to please all, and with the desire to keep the situation, because they needed it.

DECOY ADVERTISEMENTS.

Advertisements from telegraph schools, or "colleges," as they are called, offering high salaries, can be seen almost daily. Here are some specimens:

WANTED—THREE MORE YOUNG LADIES TO LEARN TELEGRAPHING ON our lines and take paying situations; $70, $80, $90, $100, $110, $120, $125, monthly.

WANTED—BEFORE MARCH TWENTY-FOURTH, FOUR MORE YOUNG ladies to learn telegraphing on our lines to take paying situations; $70 to $125, monthly.

WANTED—FOR CITY OFFICES, SEVEN YOUNG LADIES TO LEARN TELEgraphing on our lines and take paying situations; $70, $80, $90, $100, $110, $120, $125, monthly.

The advertisements are cunningly devised; one day, *three* young ladies are wanted; another day, *four*; and another, *seven*; and they are made to appear as if coming from the superintendent or manager of a telegraph company, and not from a principal of a school. All three advertisements are from a telegraph school in San Francisco.

Such lying advertisements, holding alluring prospects of large salaries, entrap many unsophisticated young persons, who contrive by hook or crook to raise the necessary deposit of $50 or $60 required in advance for tuition. When the three or four months' education are about expired and a passable knowledge of telegraphy is acquired, the pupil sees vanishing before her vision the $70 to $125 monthly position promised, and the grim reality of $1 to $1 50 per day materializing in its stead. Many of these institutions have been exposed in Eastern States, and it is about time that this system of "plug" teaching, as it is called, should receive its quietus in California. Superintendent Frank Jaynes, of the Western Union Telegraph Company, said that young women from remote sections of the Pacific Coast are induced by these decoy advertisements to leave their homes and come to San Francisco, only to find too late that they have been deceived and entrapped. Mayor Hewitt, of New York, in order to put a stop to this nefarious business, and, finding the law inoperative, stationed police officers in front of the telegraph institutions and warned applicants of what they might expect if they entered.

The salaries of young women employed by the Western Union in this State range from $50 to $75 per month, and average $60. As there are only about one hundred and twenty female operators employed by the Western Union in California, it can be seen how small must be the number of vacancies likely to occur, and how false the advertisement for young ladies to fill vacancies of from three to seven places every month.

CHAPTER V.

DOMESTICS—WHY GIRLS WILL NOT BECOME SERVANTS.

When the small wages paid to girls in most vocations are considered, many persons express astonishment that they do not hire out as domestics, so that they can have good homes and good wages.

Day after day in the columns of our daily newspapers the question is asked by lady correspondents, "Why don't the girls enter domestic service?" There is a great demand for servant girls in California, and nowhere in the world are they paid such good wages. It is a fact, patent to all observers, that American girls will enter into domestic service only as a last resort. Fortunately, or unfortunately, as the case may be, the bulk of our girls, somehow, cultivate the notion that such service is menial, and not as respectable as running a sewing machine, or factory loom, or to be a shop girl. You cannot convince them that standing behind a counter for twelve or fourteen hours a day for a miserable stipend, is not as healthy and profitable, and conducive to future welfare, as acting in the capacity of a well paid, well fed, parlor or chamber maid.

It is the badge of servitude they revolt against. The fact of being a servant girl, even though sugar coated with the name of "help," is repugnant to them because what is termed society taboos servants. A saleswoman, or "saleslady," as she is politely termed, is socially recognized except among the "bon ton." Seamstresses, milliners, and factory girls are tolerated, but the ordinary servant girl is below where the line is drawn by "genteel" society.

A man of standing and considerable means may marry a female occupying any position above this line without offending high toned relatives and friends, but if he should marry a kitchen or chamber maid, cook, or waiter girl, no matter how graceful, beautiful, or talented, they would be dreadfully shocked. Such a wife would often have to bear the thinly veiled scorn or disdain of her own sex, when venturing among the circles through which her husband moved. As ninety-nine out of every one hundred young girls expect to marry and get a good match, they are naturally averse to engaging in any occupation having a "bar sinister" upon it.

Another reason why our girls do not like domestic service is because they are sometimes subjected to ill treatment, and overbearing, or tyrannous, conduct on the part of the lady of the house. This, I believe to be the exception, and not the rule, in California. From all that I can learn, in the majority of instances, girls in domestic service, especially in the country, and in our small cities and towns, are treated like members of the family. Of course there are in this State, as elsewhere, mistresses who are hard to get along with; who are overbearing and unreasonable; who are easily chafed by blunders or neglect, and who are intolerant of trivial faults. They are generally the upstarts, who, graduating from the cellar or the garret, by freak of fortune, stumbled into comfort or affluence.

Still another objection girls have to domestic service, is the long confinement to the house where she is employed, and subject to the almost interminable bid or beck of every member of the family. A seamstress, or factory girl, hard though her work is while it lasts, is a free girl to go or do as she pleases when her day's work is done. She can go to ball, or party, or theater, without asking leave. She can meet her sweetheart where she pleases, instead of having him stealthily smuggled in by the cellar or back door, as the domestics often have to do.

The American girl feels like the orator of the Revolution when he cried out, "Give me liberty, or give me death!" In spite of these objections, and taking it all for all, about the most comfortably situated working girl is the domestic in a family of decent, humane, well bred people. She is well lodged and well fed, and in sickness is generally kindly cared for. She is of the class of female wage earners who can be seen, month after month, entering, with bank book in hand or pocket, the door of the savings bank to deposit her little earnings. As a class, there are none healthier

and stronger than the servant girls, for, although they have to work hard, they get good food, wear comfortable clothes, and have decent and clean sleeping apartments in dwellings generally favorably located. The same scarcity of suitable help is said to exist in the East, and this probably accounts for the fact that very few servant girls are now coming to California from that direction.

WAGES OF DOMESTICS.

For general housework from $12 to $25 a month is paid, according to the amount and character of the work done. When the family washing is done by the girl together with the other work of the house, she usually receives from $20 to $25 a month, according to the size of the family. Many families in these days do not have much use for servants. They send their washing out and eat their meals at restaurants, and they only need girls to care for younger children and other trivial services. For this work many girls are desired that are from twelve to sixteen years of age, and the wages paid are from $8 to $12 a month. Employment offices have much difficulty to supply this demand. Of course the wages paid to female cooks are much higher than that paid for ordinary housework. From $25 to $35 a month is usually paid, and even as high as $50 a month by wealthy families for first-class female cooks. The chance for a girl to get a good situation is also often owing to the kind of cooking she has been taught. Many families are very fastidious in their demands for a cook, and they are often dissatisfied for almost unaccountable reasons. Girls are sometimes justly blamed for not being willing to work, but they are also too often imposed upon by false representations as to the amount of work to be done, and are thus for little wages asked to do all the work for a large family. This fact, together with the tyrannical, overbearing disposition of the mistress, makes it almost impossible for many women to keep girls in their employ. For week after week these employers haunt the employment offices, trying one after another, till at last they find that no self-respecting girl will stay with them, and then they fall back on the stolid Chinaman to do their work.

It will thus be seen that notwithstanding the large demand for girls, it is not always easy for a girl to find a situation that is suitable to her capabilities. Out of a hundred situations open to her there may not be one that she can fill, and this fact often leads to much disappointment when a girl comes to find work. On this account the employment offices are constantly thronged with women, who, notwithstanding the numerous applications, are unsuccessful in obtaining satisfactory situations.

SCARCITY OF DOMESTICS.

Another difficulty complained of by employment office men is that there is an especial scarcity of young and strong girls who wish to take positions as house servants. Most families want women at least between the ages of twenty and thirty, but the majority of applicants are over that age, and many of them are quite old and feeble and not capable of doing any kind of work. It is almost impossible to get situations for the latter class, but many of them sit around the employment office from day to day, their persistency and eagerness to obtain some kind of work being quite pathetic.

On the other hand it is said to be remarkable how many strong girls, who have reached the age of eighteen and twenty years, are incapable of performing ordinary household work on account of want of knowledge and

experience. This is the case especially where there are large families of girls, when one or two do all the work while the rest go to school.

There is more complaint of inefficiency in household service than in almost any other department of labor. Merchants, manufacturers, storekeepers, builders, and contractors, can generally find all the skilled help they require, but heads of families are sometimes put to much trouble and inconvenience for want of efficient domestics. An English lady, Mrs. Elizabeth Parker, discovered this fact about a year ago, and conceived the idea of supplying the want by the importation of help from England. The experiment, like others of the kind, proved a failure. Instead of taking girls from the kitchen and the laundry, she brought over a higher grade, who expected to assume the role of housekeepers and "boss" other servants. As American housewives generally do that line of business themselves, and did not want to be relieved of the responsibility, these English girls found themselves without work or money, and the British Consul had to come to their rescue and return them to their homes.

Efforts are being made, with considerable success, in some institutions, to instruct young girls in the art of cooking, such as in the cookery school at the Silver Street Kindergarten, and the Young Women's Christian Association, in San Francisco; in the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum, in Berkeley, and in some of our orphan asylums. They can, however, only train a small percentage of the number required, and a more available, extensive, and well organized system of training girls in the culinary art is demanded; such as that now in operation in the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia.

The principal of a long established employment agency informed me that while there is a great dearth in the labor market for domestics between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five years, there is a glut of girls in the clerical and shop assistant line. "In fact," said he, "instead of three girls looking after one mistress, there are three ladies looking after the one girl." The result is, that wages are high, and a good domestic is looked upon as a treasure who should not be lightly got rid of. From the difficulty sometimes experienced in suiting the girl applying at the office for a situation, you would think it was the girl who was hiring the lady, instead of the lady the girl. "On the other hand," said he, "if I should insert an advertisement in the paper for girls to fill some clerical position, hundreds would apply for it. The result is that wages are low for them. A certain large firm (whose name he gave me) employed quite a number of shop girls at from $3 to $4 a week, and many of them were highly educated—graduates of grammar and high schools," etc.

CHAPTER VI.

PROTECTIVE AND BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS.

In several eastern cities there are Workingwomen's Protective Unions, or Associations, whose object it is to discover and stamp out heartless swindlers who live off the sweat of the poor working girl. These associations receive complaints from workingwomen, and attend to their wants as far as possible. They investigate every complaint that comes before them; and in cases of withheld pay they try to collect the bill. If necessary, they sue for the claim, and, if collected, pay it over without any charge. No fees of any kind are charged.

NEW YORK WORKINGWOMEN'S PROTECTIVE UNION.

In New York the Workingwomen's Protective Union has accomplished a world of good. It was established during the war, for the employment and protection of sewing and tradeswomen, and in other callings in which women are employed, except household service. Domestics are excluded because the woman who lives at service has her home where she is employed, and her board, while the poor girl who works out by the day or week is often deprived of her shelter and turned into the street, when her wages are withheld. The Union does not shelter, nor does it give charity. The officers of the Union are a President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and twelve Directors. All of these constitute a Board of Management, and five make a quorum for the transaction of business. The officers and Directors are elected annually by the members. The payment of $10 entitles a person to membership for one year, and $50 for life membership. In the twenty-third annual report of this Society—1886—it is stated that the Union had answered two hundred and ninety thousand four hundred and fifteen applications since the date of its organization; has furnished forty-eight thousand one hundred and seven employments; has prosecuted ten thousand one hundred and twenty-three complaints of fraud; has recovered and paid over to workingwomen $35,372 57, in sums averaging only $3 49, free of all costs to complainants. In answer to a letter of inquiry from this office, the Superintendent of this Union, Mrs. M. W. Ferrer, said:

When our Union was established over twenty years ago, it was intended to let the women manage it for themselves. They soon found out that the women themselves were unable to organize properly, or to manage its affairs. A number of influential gentlemen concluded to assume the management. A Bureau of Employment was established; also a Bureau of Information and Advice. In connection with the latter there is a lawyer, who volunteers his services and visits the rooms every Wednesday, when such cases, as we are not able to collect, are placed before him and are sued according to his directions in the matter. The Board of Directors are all gentlemen, but the Superintendent and two assistants are ladies. A poor working girl who is defrauded of her wages cannot set the machinery of the law in motion. The money due is too small to tempt a lawyer if he got the whole of it, and the Court would scarcely recognize or hear her.

WANT OF A PROTECTIVE UNION IN SAN FRANCISCO.

If we had a society in San Francisco like the New York Workingwomen's Protective Union, she could go to it with her complaint, and instantly the case would be put into the hands of the Union's lawyer. The machinery of justice would be put on its wheels. An officer of the Union armed with justice would go into the store or workshop of the defrauder and say: "That girl's pay, or go to Court;" and if he would not pay he would have to go, and, when he left, it would be either to jail or else minus the amount claimed, with costs of Court, and the admonition of the indignant Judge ringing in his ears. Many a poor girl to whom wages are due is put off by heartless employers, many of them of her own sex, by promises of payment "next week;" "next month," but such a society brushes aside all *subordinates* and throttles the *principal*, saying, "We must have it settled now."

Immediately following the exposure of the sweating method of doing business in San Francisco, I strongly advocated through the press the formation of a Workingwomen's Protective Union in San Francisco. The newspapers of San Francisco cordially supported the movement, and the Ladies' Assembly, No. 5,855, of the Knights of Labor, took the matter in hand. As will be seen from the organization of the New York Association, it will probably be found necessary for the success of the Protective Union here

that some gentlemen of means and influence should take a hand in the enterprise. The ladies should act as the officers of the Union—receive complaints, record and investigate them, keep the accounts, and be the immediate active workers and dispensers. Behind them should be the gentlemen to direct, counsel, advise, and provide the means to keep the machinery in motion.

CHARITABLE AND BENEVOLENT ASSOCIATIONS.

In San Francisco there are several female charitable or benevolent institutions which are under the care and discretion of zealous, philanthropic ladies. They do a great deal of good in their way, but they do not reach the actual workingwoman in her hour of misery and helplessness; or, if so, can alleviate, only in a very slight degree, the masses that should be attended to. Workingmen have their friendly and benevolent organizations in large numbers, through which relief of every kind is assured them in sickness and in enforced idleness. Very few mechanics but belong to some one or more of these associations, which are daily increasing. Not so with the workingwomen. Into some of these benevolent associations women are admitted; in a few they have separate lodges for females. But the number of women in these societies is very small indeed compared to the number who are eligible and do not belong to them. Consequently, we have pressing need for organizations to lend a helping hand to the workingwoman who is in need of assistance.

The "San Francisco Girls Union," located at 714 Bush Street, in that city, was formed primarily for the interests of the self-reliant, self-respecting girls of the coast, and unprotected strangers. Its object is to give every beneficiary member, whatever in the line of her honest endeavor the protection and friendly interest in her case requires, and to furnish the patrons of skilled and domestic industries, in the way of supply, with the best self-supporting classes of females. This institution accommodates from twenty to thirty girls, and the management are making great exertions to enlarge the home and extend its usefulness.

A "Home and Night Refuge for Girls" has been lately established by some benevolent ladies at 218 Grove Street, San Francisco. The lady superintendent sets forth the objects of this institution as follows:

> There are so many strange girls always coming to a large city (and oftentimes girls who are living here) who find themselves without home or money through no fault of their own. Before we opened our place here in this Home, there was nowhere to take them but to the City Prison. Many bad places were always open to them and they were subjected to the worst temptations. Now they come to us. Our primary object is to provide those who are completely destitute with a shelter. The Home is very small, as it is only a beginning, and can accommodate only about half a dozen girls.

The "Boys and Girls Aid Society" rescues homeless, neglected, or abused children, and provides for such until suitable homes or employment and oversight are found for them, and continues a systematic attention to their condition and treatment. A free employment bureau for boys and girls is maintained; also a day and evening school; department for industrial training for both sexes; classes in singing; reading rooms and library. Lodging and board, at a nominal charge, furnished working boys and girls without suitable homes or care in the city. The Home is beautifully situated (nearly opposite main entrance of Golden Gate Park), and in arrangement, means of classification of children, light, ventilation, and drainage, is as perfectly adapted to this work as any building in the United States.

The "Women's Exchange," of San Francisco, was established about

three years ago, for the benefit and relief of needy women, especially of the class who have been reduced in circumstances through the vicissitudes of fortune. The ladies conducting the Exchange have rented a large store at 116 Sutter Street, where are exhibited for sale an extensive and varied assortment of articles made by the hands of industrious, respectable women in need of assistance. An excellent lunch is dispensed at the same place, and is largely patronized. The third annual report of the Exchange shows that there was paid to the exhibitors for articles sold $15,909 35; and the receipts for lunch amounted to $8,619 90. The charitable work of the Women's Exchange is designed to reach that most deserving class, who are "too proud to beg, too honest to steal;" and that it is doing so is evidenced by its progress.

Besides these there are charitable associations, attached to many of the churches, composed of ladies who devote much of their time to alleviating the wants, both temporal and spiritual, of their own sex, such as the "Young Women's Christian Association," the "St. Vincent De Paul Ladies' Society," etc.

The MAGDALEN ASYLUM, of San Francisco, was established in 1856 for the reformation of fallen women. It is under the charge of the Sisters of Mercy, and is admirably managed. In 1869, the female department of the San Francisco Industrial School was disbanded by the city authorities and, from that date, girls of the vagrant, or criminally disposed, class have been consigned to this asylum by the Courts. For these girls the city pays $15 each per month while under age. The total number, according to the last report, in the asylum, of women and girls, is one hundred and seventy-eight, and the number of these paid for by the city is forty-three, leaving one hundred and thirty-five to be supported by private and charitable means. All kinds of needlework, embroidery, etc., is done at the asylum, but the inmates do not get work enough to make the institution self-supporting. The San Francisco Auditor's report for 1887 shows that $9,217 were paid to the asylum for the support of girls committed during that year. The girls who have been sent to the asylum by the Judges of criminal Courts are kept entirely apart from the regular inmates, who are known as magdalens, or "penitents." No intercourse whatever is allowed between the two classes, who occupy separate wings of the building, the Sisters in charge occupying the center portion of the building. The Sisters watch unceasingly over their care. Even at night there is a Sister close to each dormitory door, who can see at a glance if anything goes wrong. Gentle, kind, considerate treatment of the unfortunates by the Sisters, whose every day life is to them a living example, has the effect of restoring to a virtuous life the majority of them. Little by little the Sisters entice them to lead regular lives and to follow Christian maxims. At first they are induced to live according to rule a certain number of days, then of months, until finally they are strong enough in virtue to promise to live in this way for one, two, or more years. There are several who prefer to spend the remainder of their lives in the asylum, rather than face the dangers and temptations which had previously conquered them. The Sisters recommend those who leave the asylum and marry to acquaint their husbands before their marriage with the fact that they have been inmates of the asylum.

Besides the foregoing, there are institutions for the aged and infirm, infants' shelters, and hospitals, and asylums for the different infirmities or "ills that flesh is heir to."

CHAPTER VII.

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS—HEALTH OF WORKINGWOMEN.

As far as health conditions are concerned, the working women and girls of California are better off than those in most of the States of the Union. It is almost certain that there can be found a larger proportion of active, strong, healthy looking girls in the workshops, factories, and stores of San Francisco, than in any other large city. Visitors from abroad and from other cities of the United States are quickly impressed by the robust shape and healthy bloom of the female portion of the community, and it is said that California is developing the finest physical specimens of women in the world. Nature, and not man, is entitled to credit for this happy condition, which, however, is not an unmixed blessing. The genial climate of California often reconciles female wage earners to surroundings otherwise unendurable. In the great majority of cases the factories and workshops, where females are employed, are well lit and ventilated, and due regard is paid to the health and comfort of the employés. Especially is this the case when they are situated outside the limits of thickly populated thoroughfares, and in suburban cities like Oakland and San José.

IN THE WORKSHOPS.

It is in the down town portion of San Francisco, east of Dupont Street, that workshops can be found where these conditions are reversed. Here, in the tobacco and boot and shoe factories where Chinese are employed, but little attention is paid to the demands of cleanliness and health. Here can be observed dark, dingy, dirty passages, badly lit and badly ventilated workrooms, impregnated with that indescribable odor which permeates every place wherein the Chinaman has his being; water-closets horribly filthy; windows never cleaned, with broken panes patched up with rags or boards; nauseating smell of Chinese cookery, for the Chinaman generally boards on the premises where he works. In some of these places, where white girls are employed, Chinamen are the ostensible proprietors. Some of the printing houses are in the vicinity of fish and vegetable markets, and the prevailing odors are both disagreeable and prejudicial to the health of the female compositors employed therein. Several of them testified before me that they were obliged to give up their situations on this account. In one Chinese boot and shoe factory, situated on Clay Street, visited by me, I found three white girls who expressed themselves as perfectly content with their lot, although the proprietor and foremen were Chinese, as were all the others employed. Their looks, however, somewhat belied their words, for they held down their heads and evidently did not like to be seen in such a place.

IN THE CELLARS AND BASEMENTS.

Besides the places referred to there are workshops in the basements, under the sidewalks, on some of the principal streets of San Francisco, which are totally unfit, and were never intended, for the purpose. The proprietors of some of the large establishments use these places on the plea of lack of room, convenience, or to save a few dollars in rent. It is inconceivable that they would be so blind to the dictates of humanity as to put their working women and girls in such places where the light of day can only enter through gratings or skylights in the sidewalk, where there

is no ventilation worthy of the name, and where everything has a look of coldness and dampness. One of these places situated on Kearny Street, which I visited, was thus truthfully described at the time:

An underground workshop for women; which, from a hygienic point of view, must in time prove disastrous to the constitution of any one compelled to spend the entire day therein. It is a basement room, located partly under the sidewalk, and is dark, damp, and cold. Between the whitewashed walls of perspiring masonry, working with feeble energy, are eighteen girls, some at machines, and others at chair and table. The place practically has no ventilation; in the sidewalk above are glass gratings, which serve poorly as skylights. As can be imagined, the light from this source is inadequate, and to supply the deficiency several gas jets are kept constantly burning. The never changing atmosphere is fetid and chilly, and rendered still more unwholesome by the uprisings of sewer gas, the nauseous odor of which is plainly distinguishable. Added to this, in warm weather, are rank odors and gases, the presence of which characterize all underground places, whether used or not. In fact, there is no chance of improving the conditions of the place. It is a hole in the ground, pure and simple, and the unfortunate occupants only vegetate there, and suffer uncomplainingly. "We are satisfied with our pay," said one girl, "but not with our workshop. As you see for yourself, it is not a fit place for human beings to work in, day after day. It is unhealthy, and wears us out. We make cloaks here, and earn from $6 to $10 per week, working from 8 A. M. to 5:30 P. M., daily. Some of us have worked here a long time, because we are doing as well as girls in other places, and could not afford to make a change. We have no complaints to make against our treatment, but it looks cruel to keep us in such a miserable place as this. Our toilet facilities are poor, only one water-closet being in use between both sexes. The smell arising from this source, and the odors of sewer gas, render our existence here horrible. A change to other quarters would be a Godsend to some of us, but how are we going to bring this about? No, my health is not good; but I cannot afford to complain, and perhaps lose my place."

By paying from $40 to $50 per month, the proprietors of the places so described could rent dwelling houses on Mission or Howard Streets, within a few blocks of their stores, which would make light, airy, well ventilated workshops. We want a law upon our statute books prohibiting the employment of persons in workshops of the character herein described. If we had a "Workshop and Factory Inspector," as they have in some Eastern States, armed with the power of such a law, these parsimonious and unfeeling proprietors could be reached, and women would not have to work in places sacred only to animals of the rodent species.

IN THE FACTORIES.

In the jute factories in East Oakland, when jute bags are in process of manufacture, the air is so filled with floating filaments that it is both blinding and stifling, and must be very unhealthy.

In a silk dyeing establishment, where girls are employed, the fumes are said to be poisonous, and the girls have to work daily for hours over the vats where they must inhale these fumes.

In tobacco factories women often contract disease brought about by the noxious smell, dust, and nicotine. By reference to the tabulated statements it will be seen that many female cigarmakers complain of bad ventilation, bad sewerage, offensive odors, and want of proper facilities for washing and changing clothes. In a great many cases separate water-closets are not provided for the sexes, and no attention is paid to keeping them in a clean condition. This has grown to be a widespread evil and should not be tolerated, especially where Chinese work in the same room with American girls. A modest young girl will endure, frequently, untold agony, rather than run the gauntlet of prying male eyes on the way to the water-closet, and many on this account have laid the foundation of permanent disease. In this direction, also, there would be found salutary work for a Workshop and Factory Inspector.

THE LAWS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

To correct and prevent the evils referred to, the Legislature of Massachusetts passed the following laws which are now in force:

AN ACT TO SECURE PROPER SANITARY PROVISIONS IN FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

SECTION 1. Every person employing five or more persons in a factory, or employing children, young persons, or women, five or more in number, in a workshop, shall keep such factory or workshop in a cleanly state and free from effluvia arising from any drain, privy, or other nuisance.

SEC. 2. Every person employing five or more persons in a factory, or employing children, young people, or women, five or more in number, in a workshop, shall provide, within reasonable access, a sufficient number of proper water-closets, earth-closets, or privies, for the reasonable use of all persons so employed; and wherever male and female persons are employed in the same factory or workshop, a sufficient number of water-closets, earth-closets, or privies, shall be provided for the use of each sex, and shall be plainly designated, and no person shall be allowed to use any such closet or privy assigned to persons of the other sex.

SEC. 3. When it appears to an inspector of factories that any such act or fault in relation to any drain, water-closet, earth-closet, privy, ash pit, water supply, nuisance, or other matter in a factory or in a workshop, included under section one of this Act, is punishable or remediable under any law of the Commonwealth relating to the preservation of the public health, but not under this Act, such inspector shall give notice in writing of such act, neglect, or default to the Board of Health of the city or town within which such factory or workshop is situated; and it shall thereupon be the duty of such Board of Health to make inquiry into the subject of the notice, and to take such action thereon in the way of enforcing any provision of law within its authority as the facts may call for.

AN ACT TO SECURE THE PROPER VENTILATION OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

SECTION 1. Every factory in which five or more persons are employed, and every workshop in which children, young persons, or women, five or more in number, are employed, shall be so ventilated, while work is carried on therein, that the air shall not become so exhausted as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein, and shall also be so ventilated as to render harmless, so far as is practicable, all the gases, vapors, dust, or other impurities, generated in the course of the manufacturing process or handicraft carried on therein, that may be injurious to health.

PROTECTION FOR LIFE AND LIMB.

In some of our factories and workshops no proper safeguards are put up to protect male and female employés from the danger of contact with machinery. Complaints have been lodged with the bureau, by men working in machine shops, of the utter disregard manifested by some of their employers to the safety of the men. I have seen little boys and girls flitting to and fro among running machinery, where a slip or tumble would cause likely the loss of life or limb. Men, women, or children, employed in such places cannot be contented. They cannot be expected to endure patiently their daily lot while breathing a fetid atmosphere, and in momentary danger of being either killed or crippled for life by unguarded machinery. In the great majority of instances, in answer to the question, "What are the safeguards or means of escape in case of fire?" the answer was that there was "none special." In most cases the only escape was by the ordinary stairway. Crowded workrooms on third and fourth floors, with no means of escape in case of fire but a single stairway, are the rule and not the exception. If a fire should occur in the store overhead, those working in cellars under the sidewalk would be like bacon in a smokehouse. Our workshops should be made comfortable and healthy, and those employed therein should be rendered secure against the accidents which are of frequent occurrence. The heartless, criminal negligence of an employer may be, and often is, the cause of throwing an unfortunate workman or workwoman upon the charity of the world, or of sending them crippled for life to some almshouse. We should have a law which would provide for

protection in respect to the openings of hoistways, hatchways, elevators, ventilators, and for safety appliances that will prevent the fall of an elevator cab or car, in the event of the breaking of the hoisting ropes or machinery, and for properly constructed stairways and fire escapes.

REPORT OF THE CORONER.

According to the reports of the San Francisco Coroner from 1877 to 1887, inclusive, there were one hundred and twenty deaths in that city caused by "crushing," or nearly at the rate of one per month. During the same period, under the head of "burns," eighty-six deaths occurred.

The large number of elevator accidents occurring in San Francisco proves the necessity of a law requiring elevators to be provided with automatic doors. Many accidents result from a neglect of this precaution. Automatic sliding doors are a far better protection than the iron or wooden bar often used, and the plea of economy or expense should not be allowed to stand in the way. The habit of locking the doors of manufacturing establishments directly after the commencement of work is reprehensible in the extreme. In one canning factory which I visited, in which more than two hundred females were employed, I had much difficulty in getting inside, so securely was every gate and door locked or barred. The practice is foreign and obnoxious to our American ideas of free labor, and should not be tolerated. The loss of life that may ensue in case of fire is terrible to contemplate. Men, women, and children, all locked in. In Massachusetts they have a law to prevent this, which was passed in 1884:

SECTION 1. No outside or inside doors of any building, wherein operatives are employed, shall be so locked, bolted, or otherwise fastened, during the hours of labor, as to prevent free egress.

SEC. 2. Any person, firm, or corporation, being the owner, lessee, or occupant of any such building, who shall, after receiving five days' notice in writing from one of the inspectors of factories and public buildings, neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions of the preceding section, shall forfeit to the use of the commonwealth not less than ten nor more than fifty dollars.

Each story of every building where persons are at work should be amply supplied with the means of extinguishing fires; and all main doors should open outwardly. There is an immediate and pressing want for efficient fire escapes in the majority of places where workingwomen are employed.

The proper construction of fire escapes and the best mode of attaching them to buildings are subjects of vast interest to the people. The inventive genius of the country is being directed to this all important subject, and all buildings, in which a considerable number of persons are dwelling or are engaged in any manner, should be suitably provided with fire escapes.

EVIL EFFECTS OF STANDING ALL DAY.

In the course of this investigation nearly all the principal stores where females are employed as saleswomen were visited, and with very few exceptions it was found that they were compelled to stand behind counters from ten to fourteen hours a day, with the exception of the hour allowed for meals. Under the heading of "General Conditions," some illustrations of this fact can be found.

In most of the eastern cities this disregard of what is due to the physical necessities of women is no longer tolerated, and the law has stepped in to protect those rights which grasping firms would otherwise treat with contempt.

The firm of Weinstock & Co., of Sacramento, have set an excellent example, by supplying their female employés with seats, which, when not in use, can be easily let down from the brackets which support them, and fall by the side of the counter, where they do not obstruct the passage nor take up any room.

Dr. McCourt, of New York, says: "Long hours in a standing position would superinduce specific diseases of the uterus."

Dr. Day, of the same city, says: "Females who are compelled to stand on their feet all day are subject to whites and leucorrhœa, which generally hangs on to them even after marriage, and results in miscarriage and unhealthy children."

Dr. F. B. Kane, of San Francisco, says: "Very many times my attention has been drawn, professionally, to the injury caused by the long hours of standing required of the saleswomen in this city. Frequently, from before eight in the morning till nine at night, with hardly any interval to get their meals, they are bound to remain in the one position most calculated to cause the manifold diseases peculiar to their sex, and direfully does Nature punish the disobedience of her laws. Should you, through your report, be able to alter the existing custom in this regard, you will confer a lifelong benefit to thousands."

Dr. C. A. Clinton, of the San Francisco Board of Health, says: "The rule compelling saleswomen in stores to stand from nine to twelve hours a day is barbarous, and it should be abolished. I am decidedly of the opinion that it is highly injurious. It will certainly aggravate any existing complaints; and, still more, it will and does have a tendency to induce complaints in persons previously free from them. The rule is inhuman, and it is especially injurious to females in regard to the diseases peculiar to the female sex. They should, I think, have suitable opportunities for rest. Another point: I am informed that there are some stores in this city where saleswomen are employed, in which there are not suitable toilet facilities; and the girls are obliged to go from morning until evening without any opportunity to obey the usual calls of nature. All of this is necessarily injurious, and should be rectified. I understand that the ladies of Chicago have taken this matter in hand, and they decline to patronize establishments in which the cruel rule referred to is in force. Let their sisters here imitate their laudable example, and boycott all such places."

The President of the State Board of Health, Doctor H. S. Orme, of Los Angeles, says: "I would state that upon investigation I find that in all, but one or two, stores of this city seats are provided for saleswomen, who are compelled to stand only when attending to customers. Standing behind a counter from nine to twelve hours a day is very detrimental to the health of any female, and such a practice should if possible be prevented by law."

The objections made on the part of the employers are that to allow a saleswoman to sit behind the counter is unbusinesslike, would encourage laziness, and the chairs or stools would obstruct the passage way. One of our leading dry goods merchants told me he would rather discharge all of his saleswomen than allow seats behind the counter. It was contrary to all his firmly rooted ideas of business goaheadedness. "If women can't stand," said he, "as well as the men, why let them go. I do not care what physicians say, or what the Legislature may do in the matter; I can get along without female hands."

The following are the laws in force on this subject in the States of Missouri and Massachusetts:

MISSOURI LAWS—SEATS FOR FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

AN ACT FOR THE PRESERVATION OF THE HEALTH OF FEMALE EMPLOYÉS.

SECTION 1. That it shall be the duty of all employers of females in any mercantile business or occupation, to provide and maintain suitable seats for the use of such female employés, at or beside counter or work bench where employed, and to permit the use of such seats by employés to such an extent as may be reasonable for the preservation of their health.

SEC. 2. That any violation of this Act by any employer shall be deemed a misdemeanor, and on being thereof convicted shall be punished by a fine not exceeding twenty-five dollars, at the discretion of the Court. And it is hereby made the duty of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics to secure, as far as may be in his power, a proper observance of the provisions of this Act.

SEC. 3. All Acts or parts of Acts inconsistent with this Act are hereby repealed.

MASSACHUSETTS LAWS.

SECTION 1. Every person or corporation employing females in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment in this commonwealth, shall provide suitable seats for the use of the females so employed, and shall permit the use of such seats by them when they are not necessarily engaged in the active duties for which they are employed.

SEC. 2. A person or corporation violating any of the provisions of this Act shall be punished by a fine of not less than ten dollars nor more than thirty dollars for each offense.

BOARDING AND LODGING.

The tabulated statements of female wage earners, under the head of "Personal and Financial Conditions," show that remarkably few of them live in boarding and lodging houses. In answer to the question, "Where do you live?" the answer almost invariably was "at home." It will be many years before the girls of California will be so crowded out by increase of population as to necessitate their leaving the parental roof to seek for work in strange fields of labor. For those who do live in boarding houses the cost varies little from that paid in eastern cities, which on an average is from $3 to $4 a week. Many young women in San Francisco—chiefly saleswomen and those employed in light, clean work—take their meals at restaurants, where they are supplied with very good fare at from 15 to 25 cents a meal. In the restaurants of San Francisco and other cities of California, where the plan of charging 25 cents for three dishes prevails, a bill of fare is served, which for extent, variety, and cheapness, cannot be surpassed. This is owing to the fact that California is the land of the fruit and the vine, and the meat and vegetables supplies superabundant for the wants of our comparatively small population. Notwithstanding the cheapness of living, it will be seen on reference to the tables that very few young women stated that they had saved any money at the end of a year's labor. This is not surprising, considering the low wages they receive. At a dollar a day, a girl who wants to dress decently can save nothing. In no case did a girl confess a deficit, but several acknowledged that they could not support themselves without the assistance of relatives or friends, which amounts to about the same thing. The hardships and evils attending the monster tenement house system of eastern cities are scarcely felt or appreciated in San Francisco, for we have not reached that *high* degree of civilization where a girl after a hard day's work must climb about half a dozen flights of stairs to reach her room. During the course of this investigation a great many workingwomen were visited at their homes, and, with few exceptions, their rooms were found clean, tidy, and well ventilated. In many parts of San Francisco the health conditions are not good, owing to bad sewerage and the unclean condition of the public thoroughfares. It will

be observed by reading the tables of "Home Conditions," that but few of the girls working in the factories and workshops of San Francisco live in houses owned by their parents. The reverse of this is the case in other cities of the State.

The following table shows the average rents charged for houses and rooms in San Francisco:

Class of Dwelling.	Per Month.
Tenements of from three to seven rooms	$10 00 to $25 00
Flats of from three to six rooms	8 00 to 20 00
Rooms, single	4 00 to 8 00
Rooms, double	5 00 to 10 00
Rooms, suits of from two to three rooms	10 00 to 20 00
Rooms for housekeeping, of from three to four rooms	10 00 to 15 00

DRESS.

It is interesting to note the "at home" and "at work" experience of workingwomen. Speaking of their dress, many girls say that it is almost impossible to buy new clothes, so they have to depend largely upon what is given them in the way of old dresses by relatives or friends. Some say that it costs them every cent they earn for board, lodging, and car fare. This matter of dress has a great deal to do with a female's success in seeking employment. A poorly dressed woman is refused on the score generally of "just hired," while a shabbily dressed girl is entirely ignored. For a shop girl especially, it is absolutely essential that she should be well dressed.

It is obvious that dress is a power in the welfare of the working girls. Here lies one of the greatest, if not the greatest, source of temptation to young women. A shop girl is expected to dress well and support herself on a salary of $5 or $6 per week. Perhaps she has to contribute to the support of a mother, brothers, or sisters at home. Every day she comes into contact with a fashionably dressed women in the store where she works. Young women of her own age, working beside her, who have not to pay for board and lodging and who live comfortably at home, spend all their earnings on dress. Is it not natural that she would yield to the temptation to do wrong in order to provide the means to dress like the well-to-do of her own sex? It was given in evidence before me, during an open investigation into the treatment of girls in a coat-making concern, by a young woman, that when she wanted money for dress she gave up sewing for a living and engaged as a domestic, because of better wages. When her new clothes were bought and paid for she gave up the broom for the needle.

Nearly every known house of prostitution in San Francisco was visited during the course of this inquiry into the condition of workingwomen. In a great many cases it was found that it was this passion or desire to be well or fashionably dressed, without the means to gratify it, which led to the downfall. Dr. Day, of the Central Street Dispensary, New York City, says: "I do not believe that any working girl prostitutes herself for the want of the necessaries of life, but mostly for want and desire for dress." Dr. Stuyvesant F. Morris, of the Midnight Mission, New York City, says: "Vanity and love for dress had more to do with the matter (*i. e.*, prostitution) than hard work and low wages." The genial climate of San Francisco entices young women out of doors at all seasons of the year, while

their sisters of the East must stay within much of the time to escape the broiling sun or the chilling frost. As a consequence the San Francisco girl wants more money for dress than her eastern prototype. The influences surrounding a young woman's calling have their natural effect upon her personal habits and dress. When she has to work in the same establishment, or side by side with the Chinaman, she degenerates into a careless, slovenly, shabbily dressed woman. A foreman in one of our woolen mills, in discussing the question of the "moral status of women employed with Chinese in the mills" with a lady who takes great interest in the welfare of workingwomen, said: "The whole of it is that we have got these girls down to the same level of the Chinaman—financially, industrially, and socially—and are now reaping the results. The girls are degraded in their own eyes by their surroundings and corrupted by their associations."

In many tobacco factories in San Francisco girls can be seen working in the same rooms with Chinamen, stripping and sorting tobacco, making cigars and cigarettes, their hands dyed by contact with the weed, and their clothing permeated with its scent. The business of itself must be ill-smelling and disagreeable to females, and often produces deleterious effects. But from the surroundings it must prove a still more prolific breeder of moral disease, especially in those factories where the bosses or foremen are Chinamen. Under such demoralizing conditions few of these girls make any effort at personal neatness.

PROSTITUTION.

In order to ascertain to what extent fallen women have been drawn from the wage-earning class, a canvass of the San Francisco houses of prostitution was made by the Deputy Commissioner of this bureau, accompanied by a Special Agent of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, and a police officer, detailed for the purpose, through the courtesy of Chief of Police Crowley.

Five hundred and twenty-seven prostitutes were questioned as to their occupation before entering upon a life of shame—whether they were ever married, and whether they ever tried to resume a life of industry since their fall.

Of the number interrogated, fifty-six refused to answer, thirty were negresses who were formerly house servants, leaving four hundred and forty-one white prostitutes who gave replies.

Two hundred and forty-nine, or 56 per cent of this number, were drawn from the wage-earning class. One hundred and four, or 23½ per cent, married from their homes and afterwards became prostitutes, and eighty-eight, or 20 per cent, left their homes single women, and entered direct upon a life of shame.

One hundred and ninety-two, therefore, did not ever earn a living in any respectable occupation. Eighty-nine, or 20 per cent, were sewing women, and sixty-five, or 14 per cent, were domestics.

The following table gives the previous occupations of the women in houses of ill-fame in San Francisco, who were questioned as above:

San Francisco.

Previous Occupations of Prostitutes.

Home, married	104	Music teacher	3
Home, single	88	Married, house servants	4
Milliner	11	Laundress, dressmaker	2
Dressmaker	20	Hotel chambermaid	1
Dressmaker, married	22	Fancy sewing	1
Tailoress	4	Silk factory (cleaner)	1
House servants	41	Milliner, married	1
Laundress, married	10	Artificial flower worker, milliner	1
Hairdresser	5	Restaurant waitress, married	2
Shoefitter	9	Kept bar room, married	1
House servant, married	15	Canning factory	5
Married, hotel chambermaid	5	Cloak making	4
Restaurant waitress	2	Woolen mills, married	3
Married, variety actress	1	Music teacher, married	4
Tailoress, married	5	Milliner's clerk	1
Carpet sewer	2	Boarding keeper, married	1
Married, seamstress	3	Telegrapher	3
Seamstress	25	Clerk in jewelry store	1
Laundress	12	Married, grocery store	1
Cook, married	5	Translator of Spanish	1
Florist	4	Refused to answer	56
Shirtmaker, married	1	Negresses, house servants	30
Nurse	5		
Cigarmaker	1	Total	527

San Diego.

In San Diego there are two hundred public women, the majority of whom are in lodging houses; two thirds are Americans. San Diego has a population of thirty thousand, or one prostitute to every one hundred and fifty of the inhabitants. One hundred and twelve are Americans, seventeen French, five German, three English, four Irish, six Spanish, three Canadians, two Jews, two Swedes, one Portuguese, two Belgians, five Africans, one Mexican, two Norwegians, thirty-five Chinese.

Los Angeles.

Los Angeles has two hundred and eighteen prostitutes, seven assignation houses, seventy-six houses of prostitution. The nationality is very evenly divided: American ninety, French twenty, Africans thirty-five, Chinese thirty-eight, with a miscellaneous nationality of Germans, Jews, Portuguese, Spanish, Mexicans, and English, about thirty-five in all.

PARENTAL NEGLECT.

Indifference and neglect of parents have caused no small percentage of prostitution, as can be seen by the number who have entered upon a life of shame direct from their homes. A short time ago a young girl was picked up in a Kearny Street dive about midnight, and when the arresting officer asked her what she was doing in such a place at such an hour, she replied tearfully that she was lost. She told a pitiful tale about her mother lying sick and starving at home. She said she had gone to a doctor and to a drug store and begged them for God's sake to save her life and give her medicine, but had been refused. Then she wandered about and missed her way. She was accused by the officer of lying, whereupon she broke down and acknowledged that her mother had sent her out begging with a five-year old sister. She was told by her to go into the dives and other

places and "to do things to please the men," so as to get lots of money. She was furthermore instructed to tell the tale about the mother, in case she fell into the hands of the police.

DRIVEN TO SHAME BY WANT.

Many women have declared that before leading a life of shame they had toiled night after night to keep body and soul together. That this assertion is not in variance with the truth, the following advertisement, taken from a morning paper, will bear witness:

PLAIN SEWING AND REPAIRING—FIFTY CENTS PER DAY.

Just think what the temptations are to a girl who is thrown on her own resources entirely, and who has to pay for her board and room, and clothe herself besides, on such a miserable pittance. No friends except those picked up at a cheap boarding-house. The dull monotony of the work, the joyless, colorless existence, the absence possibly of ambition, make a young and reasonably healthy woman yearn for sympathy and crave for some little pleasure. Temperament is everything in such matters, and the best moral training in the world fails to act in every case on a vivacious young woman left alone in a large city. A visit to a theater and some oysters afterwards do not make up such a giddy whirl of gaiety after all, but a girl cannot help feeling kindly towards the man who provides them, and thus throws a dash of color into the monotone of daily drudgery. If the man has money he contrives, perhaps, to let some of it drift into the girl's pocket without at first offending her. Then she comes to look upon him as a bank from which she may draw at infrequent intervals; and, finally, he gets to "paying her board." There is, in the vast majority of cases, no deliberation in the matter. Deliberately bad men—the polished villains of the theater—do not often walk up and down the world seeking whom they may devour. He and she *drift*, and the woman inevitably drifts upon the lee shore. Degradation has to follow. The ties which bind her to respectability and self-respect are loosened, and the next step is the last.

CHINESE PROSTITUTION.

In an official report to the Board of Supervisors the following information regarding prostitution among the Chinese in San Francisco was submitted:

There are apparently in Chinatown but few families, living as such, with legitimate children. In most instances the wives are kept in a state of seclusion, carefully guarded and watched, as though "eternal vigilance" on the part of their husbands "is the price of their virtue." Wherever there are families belonging to the better class of the Chinese, the women are guarded and secluded in the most careful manner. Wherever the sex has been found, in the pursuance of this investigation, under other conditions, with some few exceptions, the rule seems to be that they are here in a state of concubinage merely to minister to the animal passions of the other sex, with such perpetuation of the race as may be a resultant consequence, or else to follow the admitted calling of the prostitute, generally of the lowest possible grade, with all the wretchedness of life and consequence which the name implies. That this is not mere idle assertion the following statement of the number of women and children found in Chinatown in the course of this investigation, and which includes probably nearly

every one living in that locality, will, we trust, sufficiently demonstrate: Living as families, women fifty-seven, children fifty-nine; herded together, with apparent indiscriminate parental relations, and no family classification, so far as could be ascertained, women seven hundred and sixty-one, children five hundred and seventy-six; professional prostitutes and children living together, prostitutes five hundred and sixty-seven, children eighty-seven.

PART III.

TRADES UNIONS—LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

CHAPTER I.

OBJECTS AND CONDITION.

Combination among the laboring classes has been found to be inevitable. It was a necessary outgrowth of conflict, while conflict has characterized the development of all our industries. It has strengthened the weak against the strong; protected the oppressed against the oppressor. It was the dictates of Nature's first law of self preservation, that caused the workingmen to combine. When capital combined it was inevitable that labor should unite. When corporations and money kings became dictatorial and oppressive it was necessary that money earners should band together. It was the germ-truth that gave life to the labor union—"in union there is strength." Organization is but the embodiment of the principles of unity under which the church, State, and society are regulated and harmoniously conducted. Many of the labor organizations of the United States are founded upon the experience of foreign labor organizations, especially of Great Britain. The objects are to encourage a higher standard of skill, to cultivate feelings of friendship among men of the craft, to assist each other to secure employment, to secure adequate pay for their work, to furnish aid in sickness and in death, and, by proper means, to elevate the moral, intellectual, and social conditions of all their members. The efficacy of organization can be better appreciated when comparative statistics of wages show that in unorganized communities the crafts receive 50 per cent to 75 per cent less than in organized cities. Hence it pays to be a union man. But they must stand by the union, encourage non-union men to join, pay their dues, and strictly attend to its deliberations. So far as secrecy is necessary to build up and render effective labor organizations, they have a right to use it, as much as the trusts and pools and syndicates have their rights through secrecy to "corner" a market. The capitalists who have iron, coal, lumber, and other commodities to sell, can combine and make such corners to keep up the price of their goods, even when the supply is large and the market falling, yet these same parties would deny the right of secrecy and organization to the wage earners. In loud and imperative tones they say: "Your place is to take the market price of your labor. You have no right to say what your labor is worth." Organized labor has the same right to answer: "You may regulate the market price of inanimate, dead commodities, which have no power over themselves, and have no brains or intelligence, but we who keep the wheels of industry in motion, whose ingenuity and inventive skill, whose physical labor and mental powers have added to the productive capacity of the earth, propose to have a voice in fixing wages and regulating our hours of labor and conditions of work. We have families to feed and care for, we have homes and

traditions to cherish, we have human aspirations to satisfy, we have a love for our country and our fellowmen, and we would be less than the beasts of the field were we not to have a voice in saying what we shall receive for the work that we do. Labor is more than a commodity, it is human energy and muscle, reproductive and omnipotent, with a quickening brain and throbbing heart and immortal in the work of civilization." The bricklayers, granite cutters, iron molders, printers, cigarmakers, etc., have International Unions, who can pay higher benefits, sustain wages, make them more uniform, and accomplish more than if simply organized in local unions independent of each other. The Federation of Trades and Labor Organizations, when well conducted so as to command the respect of the public, the Legislature, and the press, is the strongest and most secure protection to wage earners.

ORGANIZATION OF LABOR.

This question of organizing labor for the common welfare of the laboring classes is a most vital one. Who can form an estimate of the powers of the laboring classes of this great republic in the future, when, instead of sixty millions, our population shall be more than six hundred millions? Compare the United States with Great Britain and Ireland, whose territory is one hundred and twenty-one thousand square miles, and maintains a population of thirty-three millions. Give us two hundred and fifty persons to each square mile of territory, as the United Kingdom has, and we will need even more than six hundred millions to occupy and utilize our three and one half millions of square miles of territory. And when we consider the fact that our resources are more favorable for the maintenance of a dense population than those of any other country, we may dream of a population of not less than one thousand millions.

In view, then, of this immense possibility, it is of great importance that we lay a good foundation for the grand future of this country, and this labor question lies at the very center of that secure foundation. If peace, content, and mutual good will are to reign, and anarchy to be avoided, the rights of the laboring classes must be known and respected. Their immense power to demoralize business and make capital timid is well understood. If good is to come from organized capital, it must needs be brought into full recognition and harmonious coöperation with organized labor. It is idle for the one to dream of victory based upon the overthrow of the other. Both must exist, and neither can exist without the other. Mutual confidence seems to be the only common sense method of adjusting this serious matter, and securing equal benefits to both parties, and all others concerned. No permanent remedy is possible until capital and organized labor give mutual and friendly recognition of each others' rights and powers. "Is it right," says the laborer, "that the great corporations, which are the offsprings of our toil, should deny us the right to organize—a right so dear to them, and one for which they would sacrifice their all if we should attempt to infringe upon it?"

It is equally true that, in some cases, labor organizations assume a too arbitrary system of dictation.

"Notwithstanding the errors they have fallen into, trades unions"—says Commissioner Frank A. Flower, of the Wisconsin Bureau of Labor—"have been a great blessing in more than one direction. They have been the means of making workingmen acquainted with each other; of spreading information concerning the extent and diversity of industries; of provoking discussions among artisans, which is always beneficial; of enlisting the

oratory of the pulpit and the comments and resources of the press; of bringing forth many books on the labor problem; of inducing much new legislation; of turning the attention of the entire world to the condition, progress, and needs of the great army of burden-bearers. No improvement in a class of schoolboys was ever more marked than the intellectual change I have seen for the better among a large portion of the wage earners of Wisconsin. They are giving more thought to public affairs, more attention to legislation, more time to reading and discussion. Where, three years ago, we had no real labor newspaper, we now have eight or ten in Wisconsin, and some of them very creditable publications."

LABOR VERSUS CAPITAL.

It is the want of organization and united action that causes the wage earners such failure in establishing their natural rights. It is a manifestation of cowardice and imbecility to whine about hard times and the oppression of monopoly, when the power to crush it is within reach, and they have but to stretch forth their hand and strangle the viper. "The chairs we set on," says the Wisconsin Commissioner, "the whisky we drink, the medicine and drugs prescribed to preserve our life and health, the oil that lights our chambers, the lumber that shelters us, the coal that warms our home and cooks our food—in fact, almost every principal necessity is kept up in price by combinations, rings, and pools."

Labor, on the other hand, can also combine and keep up its price. Workingmen can also pool their issues, and make a joint attack upon force arrayed against them. Take an example: The workmen engaged in the manufacture of glass are the most thoroughly organized craft of any skilled labor. By a complete concert of action they were enabled to enforce their demands. They demanded a raise in wages and they got it. The manufacturers, claiming to lose by this demand, formed a combination and made money rapidly. The glass workers now get $30 to $40 per week; apprentices, $15 to $20; and the people are paying for it out of their own pockets. Wage classes are justified in agitating for higher wages to preserve the standard of wages in the craft; but the demand must be within the bounds of all reason. When they ask for an increase of wages they should accompany that request, if necessary, with a proposition to the employers to meet and discuss their differences with a view to an amicable arbitration, and thus they would be within the limits of all acknowledged rights.

Such a course can be defended in law and in equity. When the employers refuse to accede to an offer of arbitration they show that they are controlled more by the spirit of selfishness than the sense of justice. "The relations of employer and employé are no longer subject to the traditions of the lash and the auction block. They are no longer master and servant, proprietor and property, lord and serf. They are, before the Courts of law and public sentiment, the equal parties to a simple transaction, and the same lawful privileges are guaranteed to both. Among those lawful privileges none can be more sacred than the right of association for the advancement of common interests. It is enjoyed without question in every field of activity. It has been found equally advantageous in the social, moral, professional, and scientific, as well as in the commercial and industrial spheres. But to exercise that right individually and deny it to another should never be tolerated upon American soil."

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN CALIFORNIA.

Upon assuming the duties of Commissioner of Labor, I found there was a great lack of that friendly feeling and mutual consideration which should exist between this bureau and the labor organizations of the State. It was chiefly owing to the representations made to the Legislature by the friends of organized labor that the bureau was created, and I felt it incumbent upon me to so conduct its affairs as to restore confidence in its usefulness on the part of the working classes. This should be done without in the least pandering to the wishes or views of extremists, or acting in a partisan spirit in any case where I should be called upon to investigate any differences between capital and labor. The necessity and justice of thus acting with strict impartiality was pointed out to me by our late deeply lamented Governor, Washington Bartlett. I was convinced that if it could be seen by the wage earners of the State that the officers of the bureau were really in earnest in their endeavors to accomplish fruitful results, it would only be a question of time when confidence would be restored, and coöperation secured. In this I was not disappointed. Officers and members of the labor organizations who, at first, refused to answer questions, or render any assistance, after a few months turned completely around, and became our friends and co-workers.

Again and again I have been invited to address labor organizations on matters of interest to them in the line of industrial statistics, etc.

Following the example of the experienced and indefatigable Labor Commissioner of New York, Charles F. Peck, I addressed the following circular to the several labor organizations of the State:

To the Officers and Members of —— ——:

GENTLEMEN: For the purpose of mutual assistance and joint benefit, it is my desire to establish harmonious intercommunication between this bureau and the labor organizations of the State. Promotion of the interests of the working classes is the main object for which bureaus of labor statistics have been created in about twenty States of the Union. At no time in the history of the labor movement have matters, which affect the wage workers, received so much attention as now. Demands for reform and improvement in their condition are loud and imperative. Real and permanent reforms, however, cannot be secured unless the demand for them is based upon carefully collected statistics. Laws for the protection and amelioration of the working classes can only be made when the Legislature is put in possession of thorough and reliable facts. A bill may be otherwise perfect, and every reason exist for its passage, but if the promoters of it have nothing but guesswork to urge in its favor it has a hard road to travel and but slim chance of becoming a law. It must be borne in mind that most of the members are from rural districts where there is little or no labor organization, and many of these, therefore, cannot comprehend the wants of the working people in industrial centers. Hence the necessity for cordial coöperation between the labor organizations and this bureau. The former help to gather the facts, and the latter presents them in proper shape to our law makers.

The attempt to collect statistics by mail has heretofore proved a waste of money; ye this is the means on which I must chiefly rely, no other being provided by law. It is, after all, only with the aid of the labor organizations of the State, and the personal help of those who hold official or prominent places in them, that most of this work can be done.

Blank forms, indicating the lines of inquiry on which the bureau is engaged, together with reports and statements, as soon as published, will be forwarded to all labor organizations that furnish their addresses. I would suggest that you select a committee or an individual from your body, whose duty it would be to supply the information asked for by this bureau, and to fill out the blanks you may receive.

Practical suggestions and recommendations, either in person or by letter, are invited at the rooms of the bureau, which are open from 9 A. M. to 5 P. M.

Respectfully yours,

JOHN J. TOBIN,
Commissioner.

With few exceptions, officers and members of the organizations to whom I had sent these circulars entered into the spirit of the movement, and cordially responded to my request whenever made in person. Blank forms they would not, and will not, fill out; but any questions asked in person

have been readily answered, except in a few instances. In the case of one well known organization, this objection to give information concerning its strength and progress I can only ascribe to the lack of a healthy condition of internal organism. If its affairs were progressing satisfactorily, there would be prompt response to the request for statistical information. As it does not come under the head of Trades Unions, or represent any special element of labor, its omission will not be of great moment in this chapter. At another time the officers will probably be more ready to comply with the reasonable requests of this bureau.

I take this opportunity, without any intention of being invidious where so many deserve credit, of expressing the obligations which the bureau owes to Mr. W. L. Wolfe, of Los Angeles, to Mr. W. A. Bushnell, former President, and to Mr. V. H. Hoffmeyer, present President of the Council of Federated Trades of San Francisco.

The labor organizations and Trades Unions in California are yet in an immature state. While some few have shown marked proficiency and great judgment in the adjustment of their affairs, many are liable to those lapses so often condemned by public opinion. Some were formed to meet the exigency of the hour, or some utopian grievance, and have consequently lived only a transitory existence.

If Trades Unions will prosper there must be no ostracism. No association has the right to dictate terms to non-members of the same craft. Men are organized in a common cause, to elevate, morally, intellectually, physically, and financially, those of their own trade. They have no legal or moral right to say who of their trade shall live and who shall starve. A union should not undertake to prescribe inflexible rules to an employer. They should keep in sight the fact that the interests of the employer are identical with their own, and that exigencies may arise when such rules could not reasonably be enforced.

Many differences, which have caused untold troubles and have sent scores to poorhouses, insane asylums, or untimely graves, could have been averted or amicably settled by arbitration. Organized labor has suffered greatly from hasty action—by the inauguration of strikes, which should never have been resorted to.

California has about twenty-five thousand organized wage earners. In San Francisco alone more than $90,000 a year are paid in monthly dues, not to speak of initiations, assessments, and fines. Los Angeles is pretty thoroughly organized, but its transient population makes unionism very insecure.

Trades Unions in Los Angeles.

The numerical strength of labor organizations in Los Angeles is as follows:

TABLE E.

Bricklayers	120	Wage Workers Union	150
Carpenters, amalgamated	60	Mixed Assembly (men and women)	153
Carpenters and Joiners	907	Cooks and Waiters	48
Stonecutters	54	Typographical Union	212
Plasterers	150	Pressmen	40
Plasterers' Helpers	100	Iron Molders	50
Lathers	75	Cigarmakers	10
Plumbers	100	Tailors	87
Plumbers' Helpers	40	Bakers	50
Sheet and Metal Workers	200		
Painters	75		2,701
Sandstone Cutters	20		

Federated Trades, San Francisco.

The organizations composing the Federation in San Francisco number seventeen, and are as follows:

TABLE F.

	In Good Standing.	Membership.
Coast Seamen, of San Francisco	1,200	1,800
Beer Brewers, Branch 16	350	355
Furniture Workers, Branch 15	158	163
Furniture Workers, Branch 25	53	100
Cigarmakers, No. 228	348	348
Typographical Union, No. 21	625	750
Pressmen	30	70
Harnessmakers	41	60
Bookbinders	60	60
Musicians Mutual Protection	393	393
Journeymen Bakers, No. 24	315	398
Confectioners	50	51
Wood Carvers	25	38
American Bakers	84	84
Shoemakers	240	680
Typographical Union, No. 36	70	71
German Coopers	60	60

To this could be added the White Cooks and Waiters, as they are still represented in the Council, but in such a demoralized condition in consequence of their late disastrous strike, that their membership would hardly reach two hundred, a falling off of eight hundred or nine hundred members. The Federation of Trades had a membership, two years ago, of thirteen thousand.

According to a late report of the Typographical Union, the following are the causes of this decline. Its conclusions are worthy of more than a passing notice by trades organizations, as tending to show the great need of unity in organized labor:

The reasons for this decline are various. In a few cases the withdrawal of unions is ascribed to what the delegates representing them claim to be as stated in the charge quoted. But certainly this does not hold in the great majority of instances where unions have withdrawn. A few of the answers received by your committee to their circular letter addressed to labor organizations will illustrate how widely different were the causes operating to effect such withdrawals.

The Iron Molders say the principal reasons for their withdrawal from the Council were: No financial support from trades forming the Council; the ordering of the Spreckels boycott while it was evident the Union Iron Works strike would be lost; and organizations represented which had no existence. They say they will not be likely to again join a federation of any kind, but believe the present one to be an improvement over that of two years ago.

The Brotherhood of Patternmakers say they had no other reason than the joining of their forces to the Patternmakers National League of North America, they thinking that to become a branch of such a league would be much more to their benefit.

The Steamship Stevedores Union say first, our union of seven hundred and fifty is too large, and our assessments would be too high, to support the other unions when they choose to go on a strike; second, they wanted us to support another rival organization on the city front against the riggers and stevedores, who paid us higher wages.

We find that some of the iron trades went out because of having a sub-federation of their own, and because the provision of a strike fund was not sufficient. On the other hand, the Tailors Union will have nothing to do with the Federation as a constituent element while the Council levies strike assessments.

These are but samples of the widely divergent views taken of the Federation and its workings.

In conclusion, your committee wish to report, that in the light of all the information they have obtained, the arguments they have heard, and the motives which seem to actuate the friends and enemies of the Council of Federated Trades, they believe that this union, in its own interest, and for the good of organized labor, should continue its active and earnest support to the Federation; that no good, and probably great harm,

would be done to the interests we have most at heart, by the withdrawal of this union; that our delegates should set an example of earnest work to the lukewarm and selfish in and out of the Federation. That the Federation should have sufficient financial help from all unions to enable it to carry on its work in a thorough and becoming manner; that we can see no way in which good could come of destroying what has been builded with the mere hope of building better on the ruins of what now is a useful though comparatively small gathering of labor unions.

Trades Unions of San Francisco.

The numerical strength of trades unions in San Francisco and vicinity is as follows:

TABLE G.

Journeymen National Union Bakers, No. 24	400	Glovers Union, K. of L., No. 7,546	150
American National Union Bakers, No. 51	80	Glass Blowers	28
Italian and French Bakers	68	Harnessmakers	60
Brewery Employés, No. 16	335	Hat Finishers	10
Brakemen	126	Horseshoers	82
Brewers and Malsters	325	Iron Molders	500
Boot and Shoemakers	609	Laborers	300
Brick Handlers Protective Union	104	Lasters	140
Bookbinders	75	Long Shore Lumbermen	250
Journeymen Butchers Protective	142	Licensed Steamship Officers	184
Barbers Benevolent Association	115	Longshoremen	242
Boilermakers and Iron Ship Builders	254	Lumbermen's Protective	141
Bag and Satchel Makers	11	Machinists	450
Bricklayers	300	Metal Roofers	73
Cane and Willow Workers	22	Musicians Mutual Protective	410
Confectionery and Cake Bakers	57	Marine Firemen	200
Cigarmakers International, No. 228	345	Painters (journeymen)	100
Cigarmakers International, No. 253	17	Painters (fresco)	10
Cigar Packers	24	Patternmakers	70
Caulkers	200	Plumbers and Gasfitters	85
Coopers Journeymen (English)	120	Plasterers	175
Coopers Journeymen (German)	58	Pavers	35
Core Makers	24	Pressmen, No. 24	145
Cornice Workers	50	Riggers	108
Candy Makers	60	Shipwrights Association	300
Carpenters and Joiners	700	Stevedores Protective	450
Carpenters (German)	165	Riggers and Stevedores	214
Coast Seamen, San Francisco	2,785	Ship and Steamboat Joiners	80
Coast Seamen, Port Townsend Branch	95	Stone Cutters	250
Coast Seamen, Eureka Branch	113	Steamship Stevedores	700
Coast Seamen, San Pedro Branch	228	Steamship Firemen	218
Coast Seamen, San Diego Branch	75	Steamship Sailors	1,200
Council of Building Trades	84	Tailors	255
Draymen and Teamsters	90	Teamsters (coal cart)	100
Dry Goods Men	170	Typographical, No. 21	630
Engineers, Stationary	125	Tanners and Curriers	213
Engineers, Marine, No. 35	450	Typographical, No. 36	60
Furniture Workers, International No. 15	105	Wharf Builders	77
Furniture Workers, International No. 25	75	Woodcarvers	39
		Yardmasters	53
		White Cooks and Waiters	1,260
		Upholsterers (carpet)	25
		Total	19,379

During the time of what is known as the Spreckels strike, nearly all the water front organizations withdrew from the Federated Trades Council, and have since formed themselves into "The Wharf and Wave Federation." The nature of labor organizations along the water front is such as not to be clearly understood by members of other unions who have never come into contact with the peculiarities of seafaring men. In order to combat more effectually with united capital, to place themselves in a better position, to resist the unfair and sometimes arrogant demands of monopo-

lists by a uniform method of procedure, the Wharf and Wave Federation was formed. At present its total membership is six thousand five hundred and seventy members, composed, respectively, of the following unions:

TABLE H.

Wharf and Wave Federation.

Independent Longshoremen	300	Steamship Sailors	1,600
Stevedores Protective	450	Coast Seamen	3,000
Steamship Stevedores Protective	700	Coal Cart Teamsters	100
Lumbermen's Protective	300		
Riggers Protective	120	Total	6,570

The other water front organizations, not as yet connected with the Federation, are as follows:

Water Front Unions.

Marine Firemen	200	Licensed Officers (captain and mates on steamship)	184
Shipwrights	300		
Ship Caulkers	200		
Riggers and Stevedores	214	Total	1,548
Marine Engineers	450		

Brewery Employés Union, No. 16, of the Pacific Coast.

This union was formed in June, 1886, under the name, "Brewery Workmen's Union of San Francisco." In August, 1886, a reorganization took place, the name being changed to "Beer Brewers and Malsters Union of the Pacific Coast." In October, 1886, a branch of this union was organized in San José, which is still in a flourishing condition, numbering thirty-four members. In March, 1887, another branch was organized in Boca, Nevada County, having at present seventeen members, all the journeymen brewers and malsters employed in Boca. The trade is mainly in the hands of Germans or German-Americans, in consequence of which their language was predominant, and was used exclusively in the meetings of the union and its branches. But in July, 1887, after the strike, it was found necessary to form a branch for those few English-speaking employed in this city, and who were compelled to join the organization. Thus the so called English branch, or Branch No. 3, was organized. All Germans wishing to become familiar with the language were permitted a transfer, in consequence of which this branch has increased to twenty-two members, with every prospect of a greater increase in the near future. Therefore the membership of the beer brewers and malsters of the Pacific Coast is divided as follows:

1. San Francisco Brewers and Malsters (German)	207
2. San José Brewers and Malsters (German)	33
3. Boca Brewers and Malsters (German)	17
4. San Francisco Brewers and Malsters (English)	22
5. Scattered in the interior (German)	46
Total	325

In April, 1887, the organization joined the National Brewers Union of the United States. At the last National Convention, held in Detroit, September, 1887, the name was changed into the National Union of the United Brewery Workmen of the United States. This was done in order to include into the organization coopers, beer wagon drivers, firemen, engineers, etc.

This necessitated a change of name, which accordingly was done, reading now, The United Brewery Workmen's Union, No. 16, of the Pacific Coast; although they are better known as the Beer Brewers and Maltsters Union. In October, 1887, the Brewery Coopers were organized as a branch of their union, which ultimately developed into an independent organization, as it took in coopers working in wine cellars and cooper shops. At the same time the Beer Drivers Union of this city was formed into a branch, but owing to the hostile actions of the beer bosses, who threatened to discharge every driver if he should join the branch, and compelling them to sign an agreement, the agitation was limited to secret work, necessarily retarding its growth, although at present the Drivers number eleven members, who it is said are sincere and determined. In the spring it is the intention to organize branches in Sacramento, Los Angeles, and Portland, Oregon. The general status of the union is that every member must be in possession of his intention papers, at least, and must, as soon as he is entitled, procure his citizen papers, which laws are peremptory. The union favors independent political action, and voices such sentiments freely through its organ *Die Brauer Zeitung*, a widely circulated medium, published in New York.

A general meeting is held in this city every month. All men working in a brewery are eligible to membership. The work in the brewery proper is divided into three departments: First, washhousemen, with wages from $14 upwards. Second, brew, copper, and fermenting department, employing kettlemen and cellarmen, with wages from $16 upwards. Third, malthousemen, with wages as the last. For the first two departments overtime is paid at the rate of 30 cents an hour; for the last, with 50 cents an hour. Ten hours constitute a day's work. In the lager beer departments the men work the ten hours out in one stretch, with a short intermission for meals. In the steam beer departments the division of the day's labor is left to the mutual agreement between men and foremen. The relationship between the men and their employers is satisfactory, as the result of a contract made between the union and the bosses on the twenty-second of July, 1887. The good condition of the members is entirely due to this contract, which was concluded by the assistance of the Council Federated Trades, and which reduced the working day from fourteen to ten hours, and in some cases raised the wages from 25 to 30 per cent, besides making weekly payment of wages the rule, instead of monthly. The union is desirous of introducing an apprentice system, making it compulsory for the employés to learn the trade properly before they can claim the higher wages, as it takes from three to five years to learn any of the branches of the work thoroughly. An employment office will also soon be established.

Brick Handlers Protective Union.

The work of the men consists in bringing the bricks from the yards to the transporting vessel, and are paid partly by the day and partly by the thousand bricks. The union is instrumental in keeping the wages up, as the non-union men are working, even now, at considerably reduced rates. It sometimes happens that a vessel has to load or discharge its bricks in a hurry, to catch the tide, then the work is by the piece, and the crew of a vessel have a right to share in it. The union has just won a fight against reduction of wages by the Patent Brick Company, whereby an agreement was made with the Sacramento Brick Company that no work was to be done only by union men.

Boot and Shoemakers White Labor League.

There are about two hundred and fifty women who find employment in this city. There are no women in the union. There is no fixed scale of wages, but the by-laws make it impossible for a member to take the position of another, who has been discharged, for less wages than he got. There are many departments in the shoemaking trade, and few men, only, understand them all. The bottomers and lasters work by the piece, while the sole leather men and cutters by the day. Wages range downwards from $18 a week; the average is about $13. Most of the members prefer piece work. The Chinese competition is continuously forcing wages down. There are between three and four thousand Chinamen employed in this trade. The league only contains those white men who work in the factories, not those employed in the custom trade. It would take about two years to learn one branch of the trade. There is only one firm antagonistic to the league.

Bookbinders Union.

The men work ten hours a day, and only in extraordinary cases does a dull month occur. The union has no fixed apprentice system, and the employers are trying to get as many of them as possible into their shops. The union relies mainly on the difficulty of the work to keep too many apprentices out. There are many girls working in the shops, but they mostly do the folding work, not the proper binding. The union pays sick benefits.

Journeymen Butchers Protective Benevolent Association of the Pacific Coast.

Wages range from $7 to $22 50 a week. The average is about $15 a week. The work is steady all the year round. The working day is from 4 A. M. to 6 P. M. Sunday is not free. There is a city ordinance against keeping butcher shops open on Sunday, but doubts are entertained as to its validity. In some markets the men have to go to work on Saturday at 4 A. M., and do not leave off until 10 P. M., to resume work again on Sunday morning from 7 A. M. till 12 noon. This Sunday work is not paid extra. The union is agitating the questions of shorter hours and no Sunday work.

Cane and Willow Workers Union.

It takes but a few weeks to learn something of the work, but unless the man is a quick worker he will not be able to make wages, and to become that will take about a year. Wages range from $1 to $2 a day. The union has been instrumental in driving the Chinese out of the trade, and also in raising the wages a little. There are three shops in this city employing respectively fifteen, eighteen, and twenty men. There is only one shop in which the union is properly organized. The union is opposed by certain men who work in one of the shops on fancy chair work, and who are paid at the rate of $18 a week. To be able to pay these high wages the employer keeps other wages down, and as the union wages are lower the men refuse to join the union. The trade is suffering from foreign importations of demijohns from Hamburg and Antwerp. There is a duty on such importations, which, however, seems to be evaded in some mysterious manner.

Cigarmakers International Union, No. 228.

The union has a scale of wages. All work is done by the piece. A slow worker may make only $7 a week, while a fast one may reach $21 or $22.

The average is about $10. The eight-hour day is introduced everywhere, and the work is steady all the year round. There is a good feeling between the men and the employers, who are thoroughly familiar with all the union rules. Each factory has its shop collector, who collects the dues, and in special cases, calls special meeting of the shop. The union pays sick benefits and strike benefits; also $50 burial money. There is also a traveling benefit of $20 paid, to allow a member to go to a place where he can find work. This amount must, however, be refunded to the union as soon as the beneficiary is able to do so. The union is directing its efforts principally against the Chinese competition. There are about four thousand five hundred Chinese cigarmakers in this city. There are about one hundred and sixty factories employing white labor, exclusively. The work is considered rather unhealthy on account of the dry dust flying about in the shop, which, when inhaled, seems to affect the lungs of a great many of the men.

Journeymen Bakers National Union, No. 24.

This is a German-speaking union. Most of the men have learned their trade in Europe. It takes about three years to learn it. A day's work is eleven hours for the five days and sixteen hours for Saturday. No Sunday work. There is another union in this city in which many of the bosses are members. This union is mostly to be remembered for having got an ordinance passed against Sunday work in bakeries, only to see the same first violated and then declared invalid by the Courts, through the exertions of one of its own members, who had himself been one of the first to sign an agreement to keep the ordinance. This other union is now only a beneficiary association for bakers. The work is considered very unhealthy, on account of the exhaustive night work and the poor ventilation in the cellars where the men must work; also, because the work forces a man to run out often from the heated rooms into the chilly night air. There are about one hundred and twenty-four establishments giving employment to bakers in this city. The union is at present engaged in a fight with about twenty of them. Union No. 24 controls Oakland and Sacramento; in the former there are a few American shops. In Sacramento there are twenty members, forming a section of No. 24. They have absolute control of the bakeries in that town. There are some ten shops. The average wages there are $13, and $5 for board, and the day's work consists of ten hours, with twelve for Saturday. No. 24 pays no benefits of any kind. Initiation fee, $3, and monthly dues 50 cents.

American Bakers National Union, No. 51.

The union has a fixed scale of wages, ranging from $12 to $20 per week, with board. There are men working for less than union wages, with the permission of the union, but should any of these lose their job, the union does not take up their case, further than to forbid any of its members to go in the places of such men at lower wages than these had received before. Should the men lose their job because they had demanded union wages, the union is ready to back them up. The union has just succeeded to introduce the ten-hour working day, with fourteen hours for Saturday. The American bakers complain that the importation of bakers from Germany, willing to work for reduced wages, some years ago lowered the standard of wages in this city very considerably. This has, however, been checked since the formation of the National Union.

Confectionery and Cake Bakers Union, No. 52.

The wages range from $35 to $100 a month, with board. Average wages about $50 a month, with board. There are upwards of eighty establishments in this city where men of this craft can find work. The union has just succeeded in introducing the ten-hour working day and in abolishing Sunday work. This is a German-speaking union. There is an opposition union in this city, which the bakers claim was started by money given by the antagonistic bosses, for the purpose of breaking up the National Union, and which now counts about forty members.

Cigarmakers International Union, No. 253, Oakland.

There are many small factories in that city, but in some of them the boss himself is the only worker. The work is all paid by the piece. All members of the union are at work at present. The union is principally directing its efforts against the Chinese competition. The consumption of cigars in Oakland alone should support more than two hundred men comfortably if the Chinese were out.

Coast Seamen's Union of the Pacific Coast.

Wages on the coast vary at different times of the year. During the winter they are lowest. The limits seem to be $15 and $55. The average may perhaps be set at $35, with board. Each man gets about nine months' work during the year, and must pay $60 board for the remaining three months. Outside his board a seamen can therefore count on earning about $250 a year. The seaman works at least twelve out of every twenty-four hours when at sea, but on the coast he has often got to do much more work than that. The steam schooners running in the lumber trade, load and discharge at day, and then run from port to port during the night, thus making it necessary for the men, tired out after a hard day's work, to keep watch or steer during the night. The union was formed to elevate its members morally and intellectually. No strikes have occurred during the last year, but by a quiet pressure the men have obtained higher wages and better treatment by the officers. The wages on the coast at present are for sailing vessels:

Captains	$100 to $125 per month.
First officers or first mates	$50 to $60 per month.
Second officers or second mates	$45 per month.
Cooks or stewards	$50 to $60 per month.
Cabin boys	$15 to $20 per month.
Sailors to bar harbors	$40 per month.
Sailors to outside ports	$45 per month.
Sailors to Mexico and South Sea Islands	$35 per month.

Many captains of steam schooners sail on percentages.

On the steam schooners the members of the union have enforced 50 cents an hour for overtime and $3 extra for Sunday work. The work is healthy but dangerous, the sea every year claiming a large number of victims. A combination between the captains and boarding-house keepers places the sailor, in many regards, absolutely in their hands, so that he virtually becomes a money-making machine for them, being robbed, as soon as he comes ashore, of what he earned on board; the captain afterward dividing the spoils with the boarding-house keepers. The union is therefore agitating to get the power of shipping in the hands of the men themselves, and to abolish the boarding-house system. To alleviate the hardships of the

deep water sailor the union is further agitating for the enactment of the following laws:

That no advance money shall be given.

In order to enable the sailor to ship himself, without the intervention of any boarding-house master or other person, that no one be allowed to appear with him before the shipping commissioner when he is engaged by the captain and signs the articles.

That no boarding-house master or other person, who has derived any profit from the sale of general merchandise to sailors, be appointed to the position of shipping commissioner.

That all cases for the recovery of seamen's wages in the United States Courts must be given preference over all other cases, and be tried within forty-eight hours after the filing of the libel, so that the seaman, if left at any port, can get justice there before the ship leaves, perhaps never to come back again.

Wages Paid to Seafaring Men.

Reference to the following tables will show that the vessels of the United States pay the highest rate of wages, besides costing more for maintenance of the crews than those of any other nation. This, of course, refers to voyages commencing in the United States; but even where they commence in foreign ports—that is, ship their crews and obtain their supplies at a foreign port—they then average higher rates than vessels of other nationalities as regards cost of maintenance.

No comment is necessary in respect to the wages question, as the general labor market of the United States fixes that for shipment in home ports.

British vessels in domestic ports can procure crews for from 37 to 32 per cent lower than those paid on American vessels, which is a serious item in the disbursement account. Then, again, the cost of maintenance on American ships is about 40 cents per day per man against the English 29 cents, or a difference of 27 per cent in favor of the latter. When it is considered that provisions, such as beef, pork, and flour, which are the principal articles of food consumed, can be obtained in the United States, if anything, at a lower price than in England, it seems remarkable that the crews of our vessels should cost 27 per cent more per man for maintenance; yet such appears to be the case. It is an acknowledged fact, that the living on board our vessels is superior to that of other nations, and it is generally asserted that larger quantities of food are supplied to the crew, the scale of provision laid down by Congress being rarely, if ever, resorted to. The wages paid on vessels belonging to Norway and Sweden, Russia, Germany, Denmark, Austria, and Spain, average about 47 to 50 per cent lower than those of United States vessels, and the cost of maintenance about 32 per cent less, excepting those of Germany, which cost about ten per cent less only.

TABLE I.

Statement showing the rates of monthly wages paid to officers and seamen on vessels at the home ports of the various nationalities.

NATIONALITY.	Pay.	Less than United States.
Mate.		
Norway and Sweden	$17 02 to $19 46	63 per cent.
Russia	17 51 to 19 46	63 per cent.
Germany	17 85 to 20 23	62 per cent.
Denmark	17 99	64 per cent.
Austria		
Spain	43 75	12 per cent.
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	38 92	22 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages	55 91 to 66 08	
Other voyages, steamships	38 93	
United States—Pacific Coast	50 00	
Atlantic Coast	50 00	
Second Mate.		
Norway and Sweden		
Russia	11 67 to 15 56	58 per cent.
Germany	13 09 to 15 47	56 per cent.
Denmark		
Austria		
Spain	34 06	
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	21 89	37 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages	46 18 to 58 34	
Other voyages, steamships	29 19	
United States—Pacific Coast	35 00	
Atlantic Coast	30 00 to 35 00	
Seamen.		
Norway and Sweden	9 73 to 10 94	45 per cent.
Russia	9 73 to 11 67	43 per cent.
Germany	9 54 to 10 71	45 per cent.
Denmark	10 94	43 per cent.
Austria	10 70 to 11 19	43 per cent.
Spain	13 62	27 per cent.
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	12 16 to 13 38	32–33 per ct.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages	19 46	
Other voyages, steamships	14 59	
United States—Pacific Coast	20 00	
Atlantic Coast	18 00	
Carpenter.		
Norway and Sweden	12 16 to 14 59	61 per cent.
Russia	9 73 to 11 67	67 per cent.
Germany		
Denmark		
Austria		
Spain		
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	27 98 to 34 06	17 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages		
Other voyages, steamships	29 19	
United States—Pacific Coast	35 00 to 40 00	
Atlantic Coast	30 00 to 35 00	
Cook.		
Norway and Sweden	10 94	66 per cent.
Russia	9 73 to 11 67	67 per cent.
Germany		
Denmark		
Austria		
Spain	17 51	28 per cent.
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	19 46	40 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages		
Other voyages, steamships		
United States—Pacific Coast	35 00	
Atlantic Coast	30 00	

TABLE I—Continued.

NATIONALITY.	Pay.	Less than United States.
Steward.		
Norway and Sweden	$10 94 to $12 16	69 per cent.
Russia		
Germany		
Denmark		
Austria		
Spain	19 46	49 per cent.
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	24 33 to 26 76	36 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages	14 59 to 17 02	
Other voyages, steamships		
United States—Pacific Coast	40 00	
Atlantic Coast	35 00	
Ordinary Seamen.		
Norway and Sweden	7 29	46 per cent.
Russia	7 29 to 7 28	
Germany	5 95 to 7 14	5 per cent.
Denmark	8 51	37 per cent.
Austria	9 73	27 per cent.
Spain	11 19	17 per cent.
Great Britain—Sailing vessels	7 29 to 9 73	37 per cent.
Steamships, Atlantic voyages		
Other voyages, steamships		
United States—Pacific Coast	15 00	
Atlantic Coast	12 00	

TABLE J.

Statement showing the cost of maintenance, per man per day, on board vessels of various nationalities.

NATION.	Cost of Maintenance.	Less than the United States.
Norway and Sweden	22 to 24 cents.	42 per cent.
Russia	28 cents.	30 per cent.
Germany	36 cents.	10 per cent.
Denmark	23 to 27 cents.	37 per cent.
Austria	24 to 36 cents.	40 per cent.
Spain	30 cents.	40 per cent.
Great Britain	22 to 36 cents.	27 per cent.
United States of America	40 cents.	

Wages Paid on Pacific Coast Steam Vessels.

As to the wages paid on board of Pacific Coast steam passenger ships, the following schedule was submitted by ex-Governor George C. Perkins, during the investigation into seamen's grievances: "Captains upon the passenger ships, $200 per month; captains upon the freight boats, $150 per month. The purser receives upon the passenger ships from $90 to $100 per month; upon freight boats, $75 per month; freight clerks, $65 to $75; and the first officer receives from $90 to $100 per month on passenger vessels. That includes meals and everything. In port we do not cook. In port we allow them so much money, and find a boarding house for the sailors. We don't cook on board in port. We give our cooks and stewards an opportunity of cleaning up the ships, which is very different from what they do on board the English ships. There is not an English steamship that arrives in New York but that the cooking goes on the same while she is in the harbor. With us, as soon as any of our ships arrive in port the heads of the departments and their assistants are allowed so much money

for board. They go home to their families. Sailors and firemen are given meal tickets, and they go to the boarding house, and those who have families are given money instead. That gives them an opportunity in the steward's department, and in the cooks', to clean up things and scour up things thoroughly and brightly. The first officers get $90 a month, the third officers $60 a month, and boatswains the same. The quartermasters are paid the same as the sailors, $45, but they eat in the mates' room. We carry an electrician on some of the large ships; he receives $75; the watchman receives $45; the chief engineer receives $150 on the large passenger ships, $125 to $130 per month on the freight boats, and their first assistant receives $90; the second assistant receives $85, and the third assistant receives $70 on the large ships, and $65 on the others. Water tenders receive $55, and the lamp men, $40; firemen, $50; coal passers, $40; our stewards receive from $75 to $90; second stewards, $40; stewardess, $25; the cook receives from $60 to $70; the second cook, $42, and two of them receive $45—I think on the Santa Rosa; the third cook receives $35 to $40; the fourth cook, $25 to $35; baker, $60; messmen, $30; messboy, $25; firemen's messboy, $25; steerage steward, $30; head waiter, $30; pantryman, $35; second pantryman, $25 and $30; waiters, $25; sailors, $45."

International Furniture Workers Union, No. 15.

This union is the German-speaking branch of the National Union in this city. There are about four hundred men working in the factories in this city qualified to become members of the union. This includes, however, all men working in the factory, whether actual furniture makers, or varnishers, or machine hands, English or German. The work is half day and half piece work. For day work, the wages range from $2 50 to $3. The average would be about $2 50. The union has been successful in introducing the nine-hour working day. An effort is also made to abolish piece work by most of the members, and in the East the union has been successful in this also. On piece work, a good workman can make from $11 to $12 a week. There are about twenty-nine shops and factories in this city. With the exception of one shop, the relation between employers and employés is now satisfactory.

International Furniture Workers Union, No. 25.

This is the English-speaking branch of the National Union in this city. What has been said about the previous union, No. 15, applies also to this union.

Harnessmakers Union.

There are, perhaps, two hundred and fifty harnessmakers in this city. Some few men work the whole year round, but most are discharged during two or three winter months. Many of the bosses are bitterly opposed to the union. There are five large shops in this city. Many Chinese are employed, but mostly in the collar shops. There is no regular apprentice system. The boys make their own bargain with the bosses. Some shops have a great many boys engaged (one shop employs sixteen boys to four men), at $3 a week. The salary is raised to $4 for the second year, and every following year brings a little raise. Out of these wages ten per cent is kept back as a guarantee for good behavior, which money is given to the boy when his time is up. After four years, generally, he is considered competent to claim proper wages, and is then given piece work, at which he, however, soon finds that he cannot make wages. He is then forced to

leave the shop. On Saturday the men leave the shop at 5 P. M., but this hour has to be made up during the week. The union is anxious to abolish piece work and reduce the number of boys in the shops. The union has established an employment office, which is working well and is strengthening the union. Wages vary considerably: First-class men, $18 per week; second-class men, about $15 per week, and for coarse work, about $12. Stitchers get from $7 to $12 per week. The average for all classes is $13 50 per week. There are not over a dozen men in the city who get $18 per week. Most of the coarse work is done by the piece, and low prices rule. In this trade the labor market has been in a rather demoralized condition for some years back. First, the Chinese competition has been against it, the factories using them chiefly to cut down wages; second, too many apprentices. The bosses put on a large number when trade is good; then, as times get dull, they discharge the "jours," but keep the "kids," until soon there are more apprentices than journeymen—they serve three or four years—and then are thrown on the labor market and, not being skilled workmen, are compelled to take whatever employers choose to give them. Reports have been sent East by employers stating that wages were from $15 to $27 per week, and men come here after reading such reports and are offered $9 per week.

Glovemakers Union.

Organization is rapidly advancing among the glove workers, and they have an Assembly of the Knights of Labor, which has a membership of nearly two hundred, sixty of that number being men. In this city there are only about fifty glove workers outside of the organization, and the organized workers hope to draw them in soon. There are fifty in San José, and ten of them belong to the Knights of Labor. Though the glove workers have been organized only a short time, they have accomplished a good deal, and their foothold is constantly growing stronger. Before they organized reductions were frequent in their wages, but this has now been stopped, and the wages of the cutters have been raised 50 cents a day by it. Every factory is allowed to regulate its own schedule of wages, as the members of the assembly were unable to agree on a general rate.

There is no apprentice system in the glove business, and manufacturers do not consider that one is necessary, as beginners are paid wages from the start, and are advanced as rapidly as they develop proficiency. A technical school system would not facilitate the work of the glove manufacturer, as there is an abundance of material for all the work, except cutting.

Glove cutters are scarce, but the manufacturers would be willing to furnish schooling facilities if they could get boys to learn the business. The cutters are paid a higher rate of wages, and get for one grade of work from $9 to $18 per week, and for another from $12 to $20 and over. The sanitary condition of the workrooms is good.

Musicians Mutual Protective Union, No. 10.

The union has a very minute price list, made necessary by the wide divergence in the work the men are called upon to perform. About half of the members have steady engagements, while the rest are taking job work exclusively. There are some women in the profession, but only as pianists. The average payment for regular engagements is $20 a week, and the work lasts for ten or eleven months of the year. The average musician will make from $800 to $1,000 a year by his profession. There are eight large theaters in this city now running, and employing about

nine men each; there are many smaller places of amusement giving regular employment to musicians. There are nine uniformed bands, besides a number of bands not uniformed.

San Francisco Pressmen's Union, No. 24.

This union is chartered from the International Typographical Union, of which it forms a part. The Second Vice-President of the International Union must always be a pressman. There are, perhaps, fifteen pressmen in this city who do not belong to the union, but the union is sanguine that all will be in before six months. All the large establishments belong to the union. The union has a fixed scale of wages, ranging from $15 to $24 a week. Those men who had positions at a lower rate when the scale was fixed by the union, are allowed to hold them yet at the old prices. Fifty-nine hours constitute a week's work, and the work is steady all the year round. The union is about to form an apprentice system, and to introduce the nine-hour working day. The work is considered healthy. The union pays sick benefits.

Typographical Union, No. 21.

There are perhaps two hundred and fifty competent printers outside the union, besides about one hundred and fifty girls. Counting every one who has work in a printing establishment, there are over six hundred men, girls, and boys in this city outside the union. The union has a fixed scale of wages; it ranges on day work from $18 to $30 a week. Job and book printers are paid from $18 to $25 a week for time work. On piece work a man can make about $18 a week, if he works full time. The positions on the daily newspapers are paid somewhat higher ($5 a day of ten hours, with seven composing and three distributing, but the work is very exhaustive, and a man cannot continue for more than a few days). The work is ten hours a day, and steady all the year round. The union is directing its efforts towards making all printers come into the union. The International Union has ordered the nine-hour working day to be introduced everywhere on the first of November, 1887. The business is considered unhealthy, and the excitement attending it easily induces a desire for stimulants. The constant evening and night work on the newspaper tends to exclude the men who work there from all other society.

The number of female printers in the job printing establishments who are members of the union is remarkably small—only three out of a tota of fifty-one, but this number has much increased since the investigation by the bureau.

The number of male union printers, on the contrary, exceeds that of non-union by thirty-one out of a total of two hundred and one, or they stand nearly in the ratio of three to two.

In most of the printing houses of San Francisco, due regard is paid to cleanliness, light, ventilation, etc.; but some hold sacred dust and dirt, with their live concomitants. Separate water-closets for the sexes, and proper washing facilities, are not generally provided. In a few offices situated in the neighborhood of down town markets, the prevailing odors are not conducive to health or comfort. The location is not a matter of choice but of necessity, in consequence of the facilities for steam power afforded there.

Typographical Union, No. 36, Oakland.

There are about twenty-five persons in Oakland outside the union, and working at the trade, but only a few of these are eligible to become members. All printing establishments, with the exception of one, are union houses. There is a number of women working in the profession. The union works under the same rules as Union No. 21, but the prices are about 10 per cent lower.

White Cooks, Waiters, and Employés Protective and Benevolent Union of the Pacific Coast.

There are outside the union about three thousand persons engaged in the business, including about seven hundred women. On account of its constitution, the union cannot take the women in as members, but it is anxious to see them organized in a separate union. There is no fixed scale of wages; the men are paid weekly, semi-monthly, or monthly. The union has been instrumental in raising the wages all over. They range now from $6 a week to $100 a month for good cooks. The average member of the union makes about $47 a month, with board. The work is pretty steady. The standard working day is eleven hours. The work falls into many branches, such as cooks, waiters, butchers, porters, dishwashers, clerks, pantrymen, carvers, and others, but all work together in the one union. The union pays sick benefits, and an endowment of $300 upon the death of a member.

Wood Carvers Union.

The union has a system to regulate the number of apprentices in a shop. One apprentice for each shop, and two if there are six or more men regularly employed in the shop. There is also a scale of wages, ranging from $3 a day upward. There are a few men working under price with the permission of the union. The highest wages reach $4 a day, but the average lies very near $3 50. The work is almost entirely paid by the day. In the East there are three branches in the wood carvers' work—custom work, piano work (the workers of this class of work have a separate union), and machine work. Here no distinction is made between these classes. The trade is considered unhealthy on account of the stooping position necessary during the work. The demand for good carvers has not decreased in this city. The union is principally watching to maintain the nine-hour working day.

The following table (K) is an exhibit giving the names of the labor organizations in alphabetical order, with particulars as to location, membership, condition of trade, etc.

TABLE K.

Labor Organizations in California.

Name of Organization.	Location.	Date of Organization.	Charter Membership	Membership at Present	Initiation	Dues—Weekly	Dues—Monthly	Number of Weeks in Year Members are Employed	Proportion of Members at Present Employed	Number Men Outside Union Eligible for Membership
Bakers National Union (journeymen), No. 24	San Francisco	October, 1885	30	400	$3 00		$0 50	40	75%	35
Bakers National Union (Americans), No. 51	San Francisco	March 20, 1887	30	80	4 00		25			20
Brewery Employés Union, No. 16	San Francisco	June 20, 1886	50	335	20 00		60			
Brewers and Malsters	San Francisco	June, 1886	52	325	1 00		60	44	95%	None.
Brewery Employés Union	San José	October 3, 1886	30	35	20 00		60	52	All.	None.
Boot and Shoemakers W. L. L.	San Francisco	January 12, 1882	178	609	1 00		25	40	All.	400
Brick Handlers Protective Union	San Francisco	May 21, 1887		104	5 00		50	24		400
Bookbinders Protective Union	San Francisco			75				52		
Butchers Protective and Benevolent (journeymen)	San Francisco			142						450
Barbers Protective	San Francisco	January 13, 1878	40	115	5 to 7 50		1 00	52	99%	400
Boilermakers and Iron Ship Builders	San Francisco	March, 1878	42	254	2 50		50	50	99%	None.
Bag and Satchel Makers	San Francisco	April, 1882	34	11	1 00		25	26	All.	28
Bricklayers Union	San Francisco	October 18, 1882	36	300	10 00		25	30	75%	None.
Bricklayers Union	Los Angeles	March 8, 1888	90	161	15 00		25	40	75%	40
Bricklayers Union	Sacramento	May, 1880	27	31	5 00		25	52	All.	None.
Bricklayers Union	San José	October, 1887	15	40	10 00		50	40	All.	4
Cane and Willow Workers	San Francisco			22				52		40
Confectionery and Cake Bakers	San Francisco	February 11, 1887	30	57	3 00		50		All.	75
Cigarmakers International, No. 228	San Francisco	July, 1885	25	345	3 00	$0 20		52		None.
Cigarmakers International, No. 253	Oakland	March, 1886	20	17	3 00	20		52	All.	None.
Cigarmakers International	Los Angeles	April 24, 1886	9	47	3 00	20		40	99%	3
Cigarmakers International, No. 291	San José	July 1, 1886	22	31	3 00	20		44	All.	3
Caulkers Union	San Francisco	October 23, 1878	40	200	25 00		10	35	75%	5
Coopers, journeymen (English)	San Francisco	April, 1882	10	120	1 00		25	52	All.	60
Coopers, journeymen (German)	San Francisco	October 16, 1887	22	58	2 50		60	44	95%	50
Core Makers	San Francisco	July, 1886	24	40	25		25	52	All.	None.
Cornice Workers	San Francisco	July, 1886	30	50	2 50		50	45	85%	None.

Candymakers	San Francisco	June 3, 1886	20	60	3 00		50	52	95%	10
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 47	Alameda	May 15, 1883	7	54	2 50		25	44	All.	8
Carpenters and Joiners	Berkeley									
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 339	Grass Valley	September 18, 1887	13	23	1 00		25	40	50%	8
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 56	Los Angeles	March 11, 1884	11	907	5 00		50	36	95%	400
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 289	Monrovia		23	52	3 00		50	52	90%	15
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 36	Oakland	December 2, 1882	30	350	3 00		25	40	99%	50
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 312	Oceanside	July, 1887	23	58	5 00		50	50	All.	5
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 303	Ontario	July 28, 1887	18	26	3 00		50	42	50%	None.
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 195	Pasadena	July 19, 1886	24	208	2 50		50	40	25%	100
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 298	Pomona	June 23, 1887	18	60	2 50		40	44	25%	100
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 235	Riverside	January 17, 1887	31	75	5 00		50	50	90%	40
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 22	San Francisco	January 29, 1882	50	700	5 00		40	36	80%	150
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 226	Santa Barbara	December, 1886	7	100	1 00		25	40	All.	75
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 293	Santa Monica	June 9, 1887	7	23	2 50		50	52	95%	20
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 316	San José	September 1, 1887	39	167	2 50		50	40	All.	40
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 337	Stockton	September 19, 1887	11	60	1 00		50	36	80%	100
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 182	San Diego	June, 1886	41	454	5 00		50	40	50%	300
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 35	San Rafael	December, 1882	21	38	2 50		25	45	All.	None.
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 75	Santa Rosa	September 20, 1887	20	45	1 00		50	40	All.	20
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 282	Santa Ana		42	142	5 00		50	30	90%	10
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 86	San Bernardino	February 4, 1885	12	240	5 00		50	34	75%	60
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 300	San Buenaventura	July 2, 1887	17	31	2 50		50	44	All.	13
Carpenters and Joiners, No. 133	Santa Cruz	September 22, 1887	23	58	2 50		35	40	50%	20
Carpenters and Joiners	Sacramento									
Carpenters and Joiners										
Coast Seamen's Union	San Francisco	March 6, 1885	500	2,785	5 00		50			
Coast Seamen's Union	Port Townsend	March, 1885		95	5 00		50			
Coast Seamen's Union	Eureka	August, 1886		113	5 00		50			
Coast Seamen's Union	San Pedro	August, 1886		228	5 00		50			
Coast Seamen's Union	San Diego	June, 1887		75	5 00		50			
Draymen and Teamsters	San Francisco	——, 1876	320	90	10 00		1 00	52	All.	900
Dry Goods Men's Association	San Francisco	September 2, 1884	30	170	2 00		50	52	95%	750
Engineers (stationary)	San Francisco	November 14, 1885	50	125	5to10 00		50	52	99%	200
Engineers (marine), No. 35	San Francisco	July 27, 1882	34	450	11 50		50	52	All.	30
Furniture Workers International, No. 15	San Francisco	November 19, 1885	28	105	1 00		50	44		400
Furniture Workers International, No. 25	San Francisco	March, 1886	20	75	1 00		50			
Glovers Union, Knights of Labor, No. 7,546	San Francisco	May, 1886	80	150	1 00		50	48	99%	20
Glass Blowers	San Francisco	June, 1877	15	28	5 00		60	48	All.	None.
Harnessmakers	San Francisco	May, 1886	30	60	50		25	40		250
Hat Finishers	San Francisco	February 8, 1853	25	10	3 00		25	36	All.	6
Horseshoers	San Francisco	January 10, 1887	30	82	2 00		50		75%	50
Iron Molders, No. 164	San Francisco	——, 1873	30	500	3 00		1 00	32	50%	None.
Iron Molders	Sacramento	April 10, 1888	33	34	3 00			50	All.	None.
Lasters	San Francisco	April 13, 1886	40	140	1 00		25	45	All.	15

TABLE K—Continued.

NAME OF ORGANIZATION.	Location.	Date of Organization.	Charter Membership	Membership at Present	Initiation	Dues—Weekly	Dues—Monthly	Number of Weeks in Year Members are Employed	Proportion of Members at Present Employed	Number Men Outside Union Eligible for Membership
Laborers	San Francisco	——, 1878	70	300	$30 00		$0 25	45	All.	400
Lumbermen's Protective	San Francisco	——, 1885	50	25	5 00		1 00	25	75%	300
Longshore Lumbermen	San Francisco	——, 1880	250	250	1 00		50	50	50%	300
Machinists	San Francisco	February 10, 1885	200	450	1 00		25	36	All.	
Musicians Mutual Protective	San Francisco	October, 1885	130	410	10 00		35	45		50
Painters (journeymen)	San Francisco	May, 1882	20	100	2 00		25	36	90%	100
Painters (fresco)	San Francisco	January 24, 1885	10	10	1 00		25	26	94%	50
Painters, Knights of Labor, No. 3,167	Los Angeles	April 8, 1884	25	190	5 00		50	42	75%	100
Painters and Decorators	San José	October 22, 1887	34	55	1 00		50	40	All.	25
Patternmakers	San Francisco	February, 1885	80	70	2 50		50	45	99%	20
Plumbers and Gasfitters	San Francisco		50	85	5 00		50	45	80%	60
Plumbers and Gasfitters	San Diego	September 7, 1887	9	40	2 50		50	35	75%	6
Plasterers, No. 28	San Diego	December 13, 1885	8	35	10 00		25	50	50%	6
Plasterers	San Francisco	——, 1865	30	175	10 00		25	45	All.	25
Plasterers	San José	——, 1887	9	20	10 00		25	44	All.	6
Pavers	San Francisco	February 21, 1878	32	35	2 50		25	21	65%	
Packers (cigar)	San Francisco	February 15, 1886	65	24	3 00	$0 45	1 00	40	70%	
Pressmen, No. 24	San Francisco			145	2 50		50	52		15
Pressmen, No. 26	Sacramento			19						
Shipwrights Association	San Francisco	——, 1868	150	300	10 00		25	39	75%	20
Ship and Steamboat Joiners	San Francisco	——, 1882	20	80	10 00		25	26	All.	10
Stonecutters	Rocklin	March 10, 1887			1 00		30	40	99%	None.
Stonecutters	San Francisco	March 4, 1887	150	250	1 50		50	30	All.	None.
Stonecutters	Los Angeles	May, 1887	81	50	1 00		30	39	All.	30
Stonecutters	Vallejo	September 15, 1887	13	24	1 00		30	52	All.	None.
Stonecutters	San José	——, 1887	8	30	1 00		50	45	All.	None.
Steamship Stevedores Association	San Francisco	June 10, 1886	200	700	1 00		25	25	45%	400
Steamship Sailors	San Francisco	July, 1886	300	1,200	10 00		50	26	99%	1,000
Tailors	San Francisco	September 21, 1873	35	255	2 00		25	40	All.	
Typographical, No. 21	San Francisco	——, 1872	30	630	1 00		60	52		600

Typographical, No. 46	Sacramento	June, 1880	20	85	1 00		35	45	75%	7
Typographical, No. 36	Oakland		15	60						25
Typographical, No. 174	Los Angeles	October, 1875	9	212	3 00		75	40	85%	20
Typographical, No. 84	San Bernardino	September 14, 1886	14	32	2 00		50	45	75%	3
Typographical, No. 221	San Diego		15	30						
Typographical, No. 231	San José	September, 1887	49	60	2 00		50	52	95%	10
Wharf Builders	San Francisco	January, 1881	40	77	20 00		50	44	All.	30
Wood Carvers	San Francisco	December, 1886	10	39	2 50		50	44		12
White Cooks and Waiters	San Francisco			1,000						3,000
White Cooks and Waiters	Los Angeles			170						700
White Cooks and Waiters	Oakland			40						300
White Cooks and Waiters	Sacramento			35						350
Upholsterers (carpet)	San Francisco	November 18, 1886	48	25	2 00		50	30	50%	20
Tanners and Curriers	San Francisco	November 27, 1887	41	213	2 50		25	40	All.	400

CHAPTER II.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

The number of hours which shall constitute a legal day's work is a question which at present engages the attention of nearly all labor organizations in the civilized world. Organized labor is loud in its demand for a reduction in the hours of labor, and unorganized labor has still stronger claims in the same direction.

The impositions heaped upon certain wage classes in the community by corporations and individuals, in compelling them to work fifteen, eighteen, and twenty hours daily, is a travesty upon the Declaration of Independence, which claims every man "born free and equal, with certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

The sweets of life, liberty, or happiness are not tasted by the man who is compelled to work two thirds of the day. He is a stranger to his family, a slave to his employer, and an apology for a "free" American citizen. That the hours of labor must ultimately be reduced is evident, but at what time and how that shall be accomplished is a momentous question. It cannot be settled by strikes or boycotts. It must be remembered that we are living within the closest commercial relationship with the entire civilized world. Our ports are open to the laborers of Europe, consequently we have to contend against not only our own wage earners, but also the labor of foreigners, who are flocking to our shores.

The chief arguments in favor of a reduction in the hours of labor are:

First—That owing to the introduction of machinery whereby the production has been vastly increased, the laborer is worse off than before, because he does not receive a corresponding decrease in the hours of work, while labor has been greatly displaced.

Second—In consequence of machinery causing this supply of overproduction and the wage classes being daily thrown out of employment; if the hours were reduced it would tend to lessen this production, and necessitate a greater demand for labor.

Third—That this overproduction has a tendency to cause unrestricted competition among the laboring classes, which demoralizes trade; and if shorter hours and more men were employed, the employers, instead of being injured, would be correspondingly benefited, because there would be a greater demand for the manufactured wares.

Fourth—That this increased time of leisure would give more time to intellectual work and attention to his family.

Many occupations vary in the hours of labor during the seasons of summer and winter.

That the long hours of labor operate directly in hindering the wage classes from devoting the necessary attention to the cultivation of their social and intellectual welfare is sustained by many able writers. "That the intelligence of the working classes," says W. J. Noble, of New York, "would improve with the advantage of more leisure time, we have every reason to believe, and that political tricksters and shameless demagogues could no longer turn their ignorance to the advantage of political party power. They would then understand the causes of their evils and the remedies they ought to apply, and instead of considering machinery a detriment to labor, they would realize it as the greatest benefit to them, exactly as the elements of fire and water can be made beneficial or injurious to us just as we put ourselves in right or wrong relations to them. It has been com-

puted, says Dr. Franklin, that if every man and woman would work four hours each day on something useful, that labor would be sufficient to procure all the necessaries and comforts of life; want and misery would be banished out of the world, and the rest of the twenty-four hours might be leisure and pleasure; but as Dr. Franklin computed one hundred years ago, with our present facilities, were it possible for all to perform their share of useful work, two hours would suffice."

There are many abuses, however, in the employment of labor which should be eradicated, and one of the worst is the inhuman system of compelling men and women, boys and girls, because they cannot help themselves, to toil both day and night for a scanty living. This evil can be seen in the employment of street car conductors and drivers probably more than in any other departments of labor. Barbers, butchers, waiters, clerks, saleswomen, seamstresses, telegraph and messenger boys, work during long, unseasonable hours. It should not be tolerated that corporations or individuals should work their employés more than twelve hours in the twenty-four. The system is inhuman, and conducive to disease and premature death. The following table will show some of the occupations in which twelve and more hours of labor per day are required, and the remuneration received in San Francisco:

TABLE L.

Wages and Hours of Labor of Unorganized Toilers.

Occupation.	Hours.	Average Daily Wages.
Barbers	14	$2 00
Bakers	14	2 00
Bartenders	12	2 50
Brewers	12	2 00
Brewers (cellarmen)	12	1 50
Brewers (washers)	12	1 50
Butchers	14	2 00
Car conductors	13	2 00
Car drivers	13	2 50
Car gripmen	13	2 50
Confectioners	12	2 00
Clerks in small retail stores	12	2 50
Dairymen	12	1 00
Distillers	12	1 50
Druggists	16	2 00
Engineers (marine)	12	3 25
Firemen (marine)	12	1 50
Firemen (stationary)	12	2 00
Gas house men	12	2 50
Hack drivers	12	1 75
Herders	14	1 50
Hostlers	14	1 50
Laundry (men)	14	1 50
Laundry (women)	14	1 00
Millers	12	5 00
Maltmen	12	3 00
Paper makers (men)	12	1 50
Paper makers (boys)	12	1 00

It will be observed that the foregoing are classes that are unorganized. The efficacy of organization, therefore, can be better appreciated when it is seen that all combined labor regulates, to a great extent, the hours of work and commands better wages. The following table gives the hours of work and wages of organized labor in San Francisco:

TABLE M.

Organized Trades and Labor Unions in San Francisco—Hours of Labor and Daily Wages.

Name of Organization.	Hours.	Average Daily Wages.	
Boot and Shoemakers W. L. L.	10	$2 00	Piece work.
Bricklayers of San Francisco	9	5 00	Time work.
Bag and Satchel Makers	10	2 00	Time work.
Boilermakers and Iron Ship Builders	*10	3 50	Time work.
Beer Brewers and Malsters Union	10	3 00	Time work.
Barbers Protective	12	3 00	Time work.
Caulkers Association	9	5 00	Time work.
Coopers, Journeymen (English)	10	3 25	Piece work.
Coremakers	10	3 25	Time work.
Cornicemakers, Galvanized Iron	9	5 00	Time work.
Candymakers	10	3 00	Time work.
Draymen and Teamsters	11	2 50	Time work.
Engineers, Stationary	11	3 00	Time work.
Engineers, Marine	10	5 00	Time work.
Glovers	9	3 50	Piece and time.
Glassblowers	8	5 00	Piece work.
Hat Finishers	optional	4 50	Piece work.
Horseshoers	10	3 50	Time work.
Iron Molders	10	4 00	Time work.
Lasters Protective	9	3 00	Piece work.
Laborers	†8 and 9	3 00 and 3 50	Time work.
Lumbermen's Protective	9	4 00	75 cents per hour overtime.
Longshore Lumbermen	9	4 00	Time work.
Machinists	10	3 25	Time work.
Painters	9	3 00	Time work.
Patternmakers	10	3 50	Time work.
Plumbers, Journeymen	9	3 25	Time work.
Plasterers, Journeymen	8	5 00	Time work.
Pavers	9	4 00	Time work.
Painters, Fresco	9	4 00	Time work.
Packers, Cigar	8	2 75	Time work.
Shipwrights Association	9	4 00	Time work.
Ship and Steamboat Joiners	9	4 00	Time work.
Stonecutters, Journeymen	9	4 00	Time work.
Steamship Stevedores	9	4 00	30 cents per hour overtime.
Tailors Protective	10	3 00	Time and piece.
Wharf Builders	9	3 50	Time work.
Upholsterers, Carpet	10	3 50	Time work.

* Ten hours in the shop; nine on the outside.

† Plasterers' laborers work eight hours for $3 50 per day; bricklayers, nine hours for $3.

TABLE N.

Wages and Hours of Employment.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Acid-makers				$3 00	$2 00	$2 20	$17 50	$12 00	$13 20				10
Agricultural implement works				5 00	2 00	2 50							10
Artificial flower makers (men)							9 00	6 00	9 00				8½
Artificial flower makers (women)							7 00	3 00	5 00				8½
Artists on stained glass (men)				10 00	5 00								8
Asphaltum workers				3 50	2 50	3 00							9
Assayers										$150 00	$40 00	$75 00	8
Awning-makers (men)							18 00	9 00	12 00				
Axlegrease-makers (men)							15 00	12 00					10
Axlegrease-makers (boys)							8 00	7 00	7 50				10
Bag-makers, cotton (men)							15 00	9 00	12 00				10
Bag-makers, cotton (girls and women)							7 00	3 00	5 00				10
Bag-makers, cotton (boys)							5 00	3 00	4 00				10
Bag-makers, paper (men)							26 00	12 00	12 00				10
Bag-makers, paper (boys)							7 00	5 00	6 00				10
Bag and satchel makers				3 50	2 00	3 00							9
Bakers										*75 00	*40 00	*50 00	14
Bakers, cracker				3 00	2 50	2 50							9
Ballastmen			$0 30			3 00							10
Barbers							15 00	10 00	12 00				12
Bartenders										100 00	40 00	50 00	14
Basket-makers				2 50	2 00	2 00							10
Bedspring-makers				2 00	1 00	1 50							10
Bell hangers				4 00	2 00	3 00	24 00	12 00	18 00				10
Belting-makers, leather							20 00	12 00	15 00				10
Billiard table makers				3 50	1 50	2 75							
Blacking-makers (men)							15 00	6 00	12 00				9
Blacking-makers (boys)							6 00	3 00	4 50				9
Blacksmiths				3 50	3 00								10
Blacksmiths (helpers)							12 00	5 00	7 50				10
Bleachers (oil)										75 00	75 00	75 00	10
Boat builders							21 00	18 00	21 00				9

*And found.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Boatmen												*$50 00	
Boiler-makers				$4 25	$3 00	$3 25							10
Bookbinders							$24 00	$15 00	$18 00				10
Bookbinders (apprentices)							12 00	3 00	9 00				10
Bookfolders (girls and women)							10 00	5 00	6 00				9
Bookkeepers										$200 00	$40 00		9
Boot and shoe makers							15 00	10 00	12 00				10
Box-makers, cigar (men)				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Box-makers, cigar (women)							9 00	6 00	7 50				10
Box-makers, cigar (boys)							10 00	3 00	7 50				10
Box-makers, jewelry and fancy (men)							21 00	10 00	15 00				10
Box-makers, jewelry and fancy (girls and women)							6 00	4 00	5 00				10
Box-makers, jewelry and fancy (boys)							5 00	3 00	4 00				10
Box-makers, packing (men)							15 00	10 00	12 00				10
Box-makers, paper (men)				2 50	2 50	2 50							10
Box-makers, paper (women and girls)							9 00	3 00	5 00				10
Box-makers, paper (boys)							6 00	4 50	5 00				10
Brass finishers				3 50	2 50	3 00							10
Brass molders						3 00							10
Brass spinners				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Brewers										90 00	50 00	60 00	12
Brewers (cellarmen)												90 00	12
Brewers (washers)										60 00	50 00	50 00	12
Brick-burners										*35 00	*25 00	*30 00	9
Brick-makers										*35 00	*30 00	*35 00	9
Bricklayers				5 50	5 00	5 00							9
Broom-makers (men)				2 00	1 50	1 75							10
Broom-makers (women and girls)							9 00	6 00	7 00				9½
Broom-makers (boys)							9 00	6 00	7 00				10
Brush-makers (men)							21 00	10 00	15 00				9
Brush-makers (women and girls)							9 00	6 00	7 00				9½
Brush-makers (boys)							7 50	5 00	6 00				9½
Butchers										125 00	50 00	85 00	10 to 14
Butchers										75 00	40 00	50 00	12
Cabinet-makers				3 50	2 50	3 00							9 to 10
Calkers				5 00	4 00	4 50							9

Candle-makers							15 00	12 00	13 50				10
Candy-makers (men)						3 00							10
Candy-makers (women and girls)							8 00	3 50	5 50				10
Candy-makers (boys)							10 00	3 00	7 00				10
Can-makers (men)							21 00	9 00	13 00				10
Can-makers (women and girls)							8 00	5 00	6 00				10
Can-makers (boys)							8 00	5 00	6 00				10
Cannery (men)							20 00	9 00	12 00				10
Cannery (women and girls)							7 00	4 50	5 00				10
Cannery (boys)							5 00	4 50	5 00				10
Car conductors						2 00							13
Car drivers				2 25	2 00	2 00							13
Car gripmen				2 70	2 50	2 50							13
Carders							32 00		25 00				10
Carpenters				4 00	2 50	3 50							9
Carpenters, ship and steamboat				5 00	4 00	4 50							9
Carpet beaters				3 00	2 25	2 50							10
Carpet layers				4 00	3 50	3 50	24 00	15 00	20 00				10
Carpet sewers (men)				2 00	1 00	1 50							9
Carpet sewers (women)							10 00	3 00	10 00				9
Carpet weavers							20 00	10 00	15 00				10
Carriage-makers				5 00	2 25	3 00							10
Carriage painters				4 00	2 00	3 00							10
Carriage trimmers				3 50	2 00	3 00							10
Carvers, furniture				4 50	4 00	4 50							9
Carvers, marble				6 00	4 00	5 00							9
Carvers, stone				6 00	4 00	5 00							9
Carvers, wood			$0 30			3 00							9
Catchers				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Cement-makers										60 00	45 00	50 00	10
Chair-caners (women)							9 00	3 00	6 00				10
Chair-caners (boys)							8 00	3 50	6 00				10
Charcoal burners												40 00	10
Chemists										150 00	40 00	75 00	8
Chocolate-makers							20 00	14 00	16 00				10
Cigar-makers							15 00	10 00	11 00				10
Cigar packers							15 00	12 00	15 00				10
Clerks, retail stores				6 00	2 00	2 50							12
Cloak-makers (men)							25 00	10 00	15 00				9
Cloak-makers (women)							9 00	3 00	7 50				9
Coffee and spice mills (men)							20 00	14 00	16 00				10
Coffee and spice mills (women and girls)							6 00	4 00	6 00				10
Coffee and spice mills (boys)							9 00	7 00	8 00				10

* And found.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Compositors									$15 00				10
Confectioners										*$100 00	*$40 00	*$60 00	12
Cooks (men)										*100 00	*50 00	*75 00	11
Cooks (women)										*35 00	*20 00	*25 00	
Coopers							$21 00	$15 00	18 00				10
Coopers (apprentices)							10 00	5 00	7 50				10
Coppersmiths				$3 75	$2 25	$3 00							10
Copyists				4 00	1 00	2 50							9
Cotton loom fixers				2 75	2 00	2 50							10
Cotton mills (men)							20 00	9 00	12 00				10
Cotton mills (women)							10 00	6 00	7 50				10
Cotton mills (boys and girls)							6 00	3 60	4 80				10
Cotton pickers									12 00				10
Cotton weavers							18 00	11 00	13 00				10
Cordage works (men)	$0 37½	$0 17½	$0 17½										10
Cordage works (boys)	12½	12½	12½										10
Cracker bakers						2 50							9
Cracker bakery (men)				3 00	1 50	2 50							9
Cracker bakery (women and girls)							10 50	4 50	7 50				9
Cracker bakery (boys)							10 00	4 50	7 50				9
Cream tartar refiners							12 00	10 00	11 00				9
Curriers							18 00	12 00	15 00				10
Cutlers							24 00	18 00	18 00				10
Dairymen										*40 00	*25 00	*25 00	12
Demijohn coverers							12 00	7 00	8 50				10
Distillers										150 00	40 00	50 00	12
Draughtsmen, architectural										100 00	30 00	50 00	8
Draughtsmen, mechanical				5 00	3 00	3 25							9
Draymen							15 00	12 00	15 00				11
Dress-makers				2 50	1 00	1 50							10
Dress-makers (apprentices)†							6 00	3 00	4 00				10
Drovers												*40 00	
Druggists										100 00	30 00	60 00	16
Druggists, manufacturing										125 00	60 00	80 00	8½
Dyers							35 00	12 00	21 00				10
Electrotypers							21 00	10 00	15 00				10

Engineers, civil				10 00	5 00	7 50							
Engineers, locomotive				5 00	3 00								
Engineers, marine										*150 00	*75 00	*100 00	12
Engineers, mining													
Engineers, stationary										125 00	75 00	85 00	10
Engravers, gold and silver							30 00	15 00	21 00				10
Engravers, lithographic				6 00	4 00	5 00							8
Engravers, wood				5 00	2 00	3 50							8
Farriers							15 00	10 00	12 00				10
File-makers						2 75							10
Firemen, locomotive										75 00	50 00	60 00	
Firemen, marine										*60 00	*40 00	*50 00	12
Firemen, stationary										75 00	50 00	60 00	12
Fishermen‡													
Florists				4 00	2 50	3 00				90 00	65 00	75 00	10
Florists (boys)												35 00	10
Flour packers				3 00	2 50	2 75							10
Frame-makers				3 50	2 50	3 00							10
Frame ornamenters				4 50	3 50	4 00							10
Fringe and tassel makers							18 00	10 00	15 00				10
Fringe and tassel makers							8 00	3 00	6 00				10
Fringe and tassel makers							10 00	3 00	7 50				10
Furniture finishers and polishers				3 00	2 50	3 00							9 to 10
Furriers (men)							15 00	10 00	12 50				10
Furriers (women and girls)							7 00	3 00	5 00				10
Furriers (boys)									3 50				10
Galvanized iron workers				4 50	3 00	3 50	27 00	18 00	21 00				9
Galvanized iron workers (apprentices)							12 00	4 00	8 00				9
Galvanizers				3 00	2 00	2 50							9
Gardeners				4 00	2 50	3 00							10
Gasfitters				4 00	3 00	3 50							9
Gasfitters (helpers)							7 00	4 00	5 00				9
Gas-house men				3 00	2 00	2 50							10 to 12
Gilders						3 50							10
Glass benders				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Glass blowers							40 00	25 00	30 00				8
Glass cutters				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Glass embossers				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Glass grinders				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Glass, stained, artists on				10 00	5 00								8
Glass stainers				5 00	3 00	3 50							9
Glaziers				3 00	2 50	2 50							10
Glaziers, lead				5 00	3 00	3 50							10

*And found. † Many work from three to six months for nothing. ‡ One share to each man and one share to boat.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Glove-cutters (men)							$18 00	$12 00	$16 50				9½
Glove-makers (women)							12 00	6 00	7 50				9½
Gold and silver platers							20 00	14 00	15 00				9
Gold and silver platers (apprentices)									8 00				9
Gold beaters							14 00	9 00	11 00				9½
Grainers						$5 00							8
Grainers (helpers)						2 50							8
Granite-cutters				$4 50	$2 50	3 50							9
Grinders							30 00	18 00	18 00				10
Grinders, saw				4 00	3 50	4 00							10
Gunsmiths							21 00	15 00	18 00				9½
Hack drivers				2 00	1 50	1 75				$60 00	$50 00	$52 50	12
Hairdressers (men)							25 00	15 00	20 00				9
Hairdressers (women)							15 00	5 00	10 00				9
Hair workers (men)							25 00	15 00	20 00				9
Hair workers (women)							20 00	5 00	8 00				9
Harness-makers							20 00	10 00	13 50				10
Harness-makers (apprentices)							10 00	5 00	7 50				10
Hat and cap makers (men)							18 00	7 50	10 00				9
Hat and cap makers (women)							9 00	4 50	7 50				9
Hatters							52 00	25 00	30 00				10
Hatters' trimmers (women)							18 00	6 00	10 00				9
Heaters							17 00	10 00	15 00				10
Herders												50 00	10 to 14
Hod carriers, bricklayers'						3 00							9
Hod carriers, plasterers'						3 50							8
Hookers				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Horse collar makers				3 00	2 00	2 25							10
Horseshoers				4 00	3 00	3 50							10
Hosiery and underwear factory (men)							35 00	18 00	26 00				10
Hosiery and underwear factory (women)							15 00	3 00	6 00				10
Hosiery and underwear factory (boys)							6 50	3 00	6 00				10
Hostlers										60 00	30 00	50 00	14
Ink and mucilage makers							15 00	12 00	12 00				10
Iron chippers						2 50							10
Iron molders						3 25							10

Iron workers				3 50	1 75	3 00							10
Ivory turners							24 00	18 00	18 00				10
Japanners†				3 50	2 00	3 00							9
Jewelers							27 00	12 00	21 00				10
Joiners				4 00	3 00	3 50							9
Joiners, ship and steamboat				5 00	4 00	4 50							9
Jute mill employés (men)							22 50	6 00	12 00				10
Jute mill employés (women)							11 00	6 00	7 50				10
Jute mill employés (boys and girls)							6 00	3 00	4 50				10
Lapidaries				4 00	2 50	3 00							10
Last-makers							21 00	15 00	18 00				10
Lathers				4 00	2 50	3 00							9
Laundry (men)							*25 00	*3 75	*7 50				10 to 14
Laundry (women)							*6 75	*1 50	*5 00				10 to 14
Lead glaziers				5 00	3 00	3 50							10
Lead pipe makers							30 00	18 00	18 00				9½
Lead smelters				3 00	2 00	2 00							10
Leather belting makers							20 00	12 00	15 00				10
Leather belting makers (boys)									4 00				10
Lithographic artists				8 00	6 00	7 00							8
Lithographic engravers				6 00	4 00	5 00							8
Lithographic printers							25 00	12 00	15 00				10
Lithographic transferers							32 00	25 00	30 00				10
Locksmiths							15 00	12 00	12 00				10
Loggers										*70 00	*30 00	*40 00	11
Lime burners										60 00	45 00	50 00	10
Lumbermen										*100 00	*30 00	*40 00	11
Macaroni factory employés												50 00	10
Machinists				3 50	3 00	3 25							10
Maltmen												90 00	12
Marble carvers				6 00	4 00	5 00							9
Marble cutters				3 50	2 50	2 75							9
Marble letterers				4 00	4 00	4 00							9
Marble polishers				2 50	2 00	2 00							9
Marble sawyers				3 00	2 00	2 00							10
Match-makers							25 00	9 00	12 00				10
Mathematical instrument makers				5 00	2 50	3 50							9
Mattress-makers				3 00	2 50	2 50							10
Mattress-makers, wire				1 50	1 00	1 00	9 00	6 00	6 00				10
Messengers, telegraph (boys)										15 00	12 00	13 50	
Metal spinners				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Millers						5 00							12
Millwrights				4 00	3 50	3 50							9

* And found. † Girls and boys get from $6 to $10 per week.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Miners, asphaltum				$2 50	$2 00								
Miners, coal				2 75	2 25								
Miners, gold, hydraulic				3 00	2 50								
Miners, gold, placer				3 00	2 50								
Miners, gold, quartz				3 00	2 50								
Miners, granite				2 50	2 00								
Miners, gravel				3 00	2 50								
Miners, iron				3 00	2 50								
Miners, marble				2 50	2 00								
Miners, quicksilver				4 00	3 00								
Miners, silver				3 00	2 50								
Mirror polishers							$12 00	$10 00	$10 00				10
Mirror silverers							20 00	12 00	15 00	$80 00	$50 00	$60 00	10
Model-makers				4 00	3 50	$3 50							9
Molders, brass						3 00							10
Molders, iron				3 50	3 25	3 25							10
Nailers				9 00	3 50	7 00							10
Netters (men)									25 00				10
Nurserymen				3 50	2 50	3 00							
Oil bleachers												75 00	10
Oil boilers				3 25	2 25								10
Oil pressers						2 25							
Oil refiners				3 25	2 25	3 00							
Oystermen										*85 00	*30 00	*40 00	10
Painters				3 00	2 00	3 00							9
Painters, carriage				4 00	2 00	3 00							10
Painters, fresco				10 00	3 00	6 00							8
Painters, sign and ornamental				6 00	4 00	5 00							8
Paper hangers				4 00	2 50	3 00	24 00	15 00	18 00				9
Paper-makers (men)										100 00	30 00	50 00	12
Paper-makers (boys)										30 00	25 00	30 00	12
Paper rulers							24 00	15 00	18 00				10
Pattern-makers				4 00	3 25	3 50							9
Pavers				4 00		4 00							10
Photographic operators							35 00	15 00	25 00				7 to 8
Photographic printers							25 00	15 00	20 00				7

Photographic retouchers							20 00	10 00	15 00				9
Piano-makers (men)							24 00	12 00	18 00				10
Piano-makers (boys)									6 00				10
Picture frame makers				3 50	2 50	3 00							10
Pipe-makers							30 00	18 00	18 00				10
Planing-mill men				4 00	2 50	3 00							10
Plasterers				5 00	4 00	5 00							8
Plumbers				4 00	3 00	3 50							9
Plumbers (helpers)							7 00	4 00	5 00				9
Platers, gold and silver							20 00	14 00	15 00				9
Platers, gold and silver									8 00				9
Porters										75 00	40 00	60 00	10
Pork packers										100 00	37 00	60 00	11
Potters							15 00	10 00	10 50				10
Powder-makers							25 00	12 00					10
Printers, job (men)							30 00	14 00	20 00				10
Printers, job (women and girls)							12 50	2 10	7 00				10
Printers, job (boys)							6 00	3 00	3 00				10
Rattan chair makers				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Refiners, oil				3 25	2 25	3 00							10
Riggers				5 00	3 15	3 50							9
Rivermen												*50 00	
Rollers				5 00	3 00	3 50							10
Roofers				4 00	3 00	3 00							10
Rope-makers (men)	$0 37½	$0 17½	$0 17½										10
Rope-makers (boys)			12½										10
Saddlers							24 00	15 00	18 00				10
Sail-makers							24 00	18 00	21 00				9
Sail-makers (apprentices)							12 00	5 00	7 50				9
Sailors, coast										†125 00	40 00	60 00	12
Salesmen, retail										250 00	60 00	75 00	10
Saleswomen							20 00	3 00	5 00				10
Salt-makers										60 00	50 00	50 00	10
Salt refiners										90 00		90 00	10
Sash, door, and blind makers				3 00	2 50	3 00							9
Saw grinders				4 00	3 50	4 00							10
Saw-makers				6 00	3 00	4 00							10
Sawyers				3 50	2 00	3 00							10
Sawyers, marble				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Scourers, wool							20 00	20 00	20 00				10
Scrap pilers				1 75	1 00	1 50							10
Seamstresses							8 00	2 50	6 00				9
Servants (men)										*40 00	*30 00	*25 00	

* And found. † See General Remarks.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Servants (women)										*$35 00	*$15 00	*$20 00	
Sewer builders				$3 00	$2 00	$2 50							10
Sewing machine operators (women)							$8 50	$2 50	$6 00				9
Sheet iron workers				4 50	2 50	3 00							9
Sheet iron workers, galvanized				4 50	3 00	3 50	27 00	18 00	21 00				9
Ship and steamboat carpenters				5 00	4 00	4 50							9
Ship and steamboat joiners				5 00	4 00	4 50							9
Shipsmiths				4 25	3 00	3 25							9
Shipwrights				5 00	4 00	4 50							9
Shoe-makers							15 00	10 00	12 00				10
Shoe-makers (apprentices)													10
Shot-makers							30 00	18 00	18 00				9½
Showcase-makers				4 00	3 00	3 00							10
Silversmiths							24 00	15 00	18 00				10
Silversmiths (apprentices)							9 00	3 00	6 00				10
Spinners, cotton									20 00				10
Spinners, cotton (women, girls, and boys)							7 50	6 00	7 00				10
Spinners, brass				3 00	2 00	2 50							10
Spinners, jute (men)									20 00				10
Spinners, jute (women, girls, and boys)							7 50		7 50				10
Spool silk factory employés (men)										125 00		100 00	10
Spool silk factory employés (women and girls)							9 00	3 60	6 00				10
Spool silk factory employés (boys)							6 00	3 00	3 75				10
Soap-makers							15 00	12 00	13 50				10
Soap packers (boys and girls)							9 00	7 50	8 00				
Soda works employés				10 00	5 00								8
Stainers, glass				5 00	3 00	3 50							9
Stair builders				4 00	3 50	3 50							9
Steam fitters				4 50	2 50	3 50							9
Steamship men										70 00	25 00		
Stereotypers							20 00	12 00	15 00				10
Stevedores			$0 55			5 00							9
Stocking-makers (women and girls)							9 00	6 00	7 00				10
Stone carvers				6 00	4 00	5 00							9
Stone-cutters				4 50	2 50	3 50							9
Stone letterers				4 00		4 00							9

Straw hat makers							18 00	12 00	15 00				10
Surveyors				10 00	5 00	7 50							12
Suspender-makers (women and girls)							9 00	6 00	7 50				9
Suspender-makers (boys)							10 00	6 25	8 00				9
Tack and brad-makers				4 00	2 50	3 50							10
Tailors							20 00	12 00	15 00				10
Tailors (cutters)							45 00	20 00	30 00				9
Tanners							15 00	12 00	15 00				10
Teamsters							15 00	12 00	15 00				11
Teasers										100 00	65 00	65 00	8
Telegraph operators (men)										90 00	60 00	84 00	9
Telegraph operators (women)										70 00	50 00	56 42	9
Telegraph messengers (boys)										15 00	12 00	13 50	
Tin can makers (men)							21 00	9 00	13 00				10
Tin can makers (women and girls)							8 00	5 00	6 00				10
Tin can makers (boys)							8 00	5 00	6 00				10
Tinsmiths							30 00	12 00	20 00				10
Tinsmiths (apprentices)							10 00	3 50	7 00				10
Tool finishers				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Tool-makers				3 50	3 00	3 00							10
Trimmers, carriage				3 50	2 00	3 00							10
Trunk-makers (men)							16 00	12 00	14 00				9
Trunk-makers (women and girls)							8 00	7 00	7 50				9
Trunk-makers (boys)							9 00	5 00	7 50				9
Turners, iron							24 00	18 00	18 00				10
Turners, wood				3 50	3 00	3 25							9
Type casters							21 00	12 00	15 00				10
Type setters (men)									15 00				10
Type setters (women)									9 00				
Type writers (men)										80 00	30 00	50 00	
Type writers (women)										80 00	25 00	40 00	
Umbrella-makers (men)						3 50							10
Umbrella-makers (women)							18 00	6 00	11 00				10
Umbrella-makers (boys)							12 00	6 00	9 00				10
Underwear, ladies', cutters (men)				4 00	3 00	3 50							9
Underwear, ladies', makers (women)							8 50	2 50	6 00				9
Upholsterers				3 50	2 50	3 00							10
Varnish-makers (men)							20 00	12 00	15 00				10
Varnish-makers (boys)							5 00	3 00	4 00				10
Vaqueros												50 00	10 to 12
Wagon-makers				5 00	2 25	3 00							10
Waiters										*75 00	*45 00	*45 00	11
Watch-makers							25 00	15 00	20 00				9

* And found.

TABLE N—Continued.

Occupation.	Per Hour.			Per Day.			Per Week.			Per Month.			Hours.
	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	
Weavers, carpet							$20 00	$10 00	$15 00				10
Weavers, cotton (men, women, girls, and boys)							11 00	6 00	7 50				10
Weavers, jute (women, girls, and boys)							7 50	4 00	6 00				10
Well borers, artesian				$5 00	$3 00	$3 50							10
Wheelwrights				5 00	2 25	3 00							10
White lead makers (men)				2 50	1 50	2 00							10
White lead makers (boys)										$30 00	$20 00	$25 00	10
Whiteners				3 50	2 50	3 00							9
Wine-makers										150 00	65 00	75 00	9 to 10
Wire (barb) fence makers									10 00				10
Wire cleaners							12 00	10 00	11 00				10
Wire drawers							18 00	15 00	17 50				10
Wire rope makers									15 00				10
Wire weavers							21 00	15 00	18 00				10
Wire workers							18 00	12 00	13 00				10
Wood carvers			$0 30			3 00							9
Wood carvers, furniture				4 50	4 00	4 50							9
Wood cutters										65 00	25 00	30 00	10
Wood engravers				5 00	2 00	3 50							8
Wooden ware workers							15 00	7 50	10 00				10
Woolen mill employés (men)							41 50	9 00	15 00				11
Woolen mill employés (women)							12 50	6 00	9 00				11
Woolen mill employés (boys)							6 00	4 50	5 00				11
Wool graders				4 00	2 50	3 00				125 00	100 00	100 00	10
Wool scourers				3 00	1 50	2 25	20 00		20 00				10
Wool sorters						2 50							10

TABLE N 2.

Comparison of the weekly wages paid in California with other States and European Countries.

Industries.	States and Countries.															
	California	New York	Illinois (Chicago)	Pennsylvania	Maine	Germany	France	Belgium	Italy	England and Wales	Switzerland	Denmark	Scotland	Ireland	Canada (Ottawa)	Hawaiian Islands
Building Trades.																
Bricklayers	$30 00	$20 00	$24 00	$15 00	$16 50	$4 21	$5 74	$4 56	$4 20	$7 56	$5 21	$7 00	$7 50	$7 22	$18 00	$30 00
Carpenters	21 00	14 00	16 50	12 00	10 50	4 11	6 20	4 07	4 00	7 66	4 74	7 00	7 73	6 97	11 60	20 60
Gasfitters	20 00	12 00	18 00	12 00	------	4 08	6 07	5 00	3 40	7 66	5 04	5 90	6 44	7 47	13 50	24 00
Masons	30 00	18 00	24 00	15 00	16 50	4 07	5 33	5 22	3 60	7 68	5 27	5 36	7 53	7 12	13 50	24 00
Plasterers	30 00	18 00	27 00	15 00	16 50	4 43	6 34	4 66	5 04	7 80	5 03	6 79	6 72	7 12	13 50	27 00
Plumbers	20 00	16 00	16 50	15 00	------	4 26	6 10	5 46	3 60	7 90	5 18	6 90	7 23	7 47	13 50	24 00
Painters	18 00	------	------	------	12 00	4 82	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Roofers	18 00	12 00	16 50	12 00	10 50	4 28	5 65	4 97	4 20	7 35	2 99	8 00	------	6 57	13 50	24 00
Slaters	20 00	14 00	21 00	12 00	------	4 20	5 65	4 98	4 20	7 10	4 35	4 00	------	6 85	------	------
Other Trades.																
Bakers	18 00	7 00	12 00	10 00	8 00	3 90	5 48	4 28	4 00	6 17	3 88	4 80	6 32	6 53	10 50	23 00
Blacksmiths	21 00	13 00	15 00	9 50	10 50	4 00	5 81	5 38	3 60	7 37	5 20	4 82	6 32	7 07	10 50	27 00
Bookbinders	21 00	14 00	16 50	12 00	------	4 20	5 17	5 35	3 80	6 77	4 68	4 82	7 29	7 22	10 00	16 00
Brick-makers	8 75	10 00	7 40	7 50	9 00	3 98	5 82	4 25	5 00	7 00	4 43	5 90	5 83	6 41	8 10	------
Brewers	18 50	15 00	------	12 00	------	------	4 43	4 67	8 00	6 85	3 78	3 75	5 34	7 30	15 00	------
Brass founders	18 00	10 00	16 75	12 00	------	4 38	6 54	6 02	4 60	7 47	4 92	4 82	6 72	7 34	------	------
Butchers	12 50	8 00	16 00	9 00	------	3 32	4 82	4 31	------	5 50	4 66	4 37	6 08	6 81	9 60	12 75
Cabinet-makers	21 00	12 00	15 00	15 00	10 50	4 25	6 14	5 66	3 40	7 68	7 70	5 00	6 08	7 22	11 40	19 50
Confectioners	12 00	------	15 00	10 00	10 00	3 43	4 85	5 03	3 75	6 84	5 84	------	6 80	9 85	10 00	------
Cigar-makers	12 00	10 00	12 00	12 00	9 50	3 63	4 69	6 28	3 00	6 07	3 30	5 09	------	------	------	------
Coopers	20 00	12 00	18 00	------	9 00	3 97	5 58	5 17	2 60	7 50	4 80	4 82	6 08	6 81	9 00	------
Cutlers	24 00	10 00	12 00	------	------	3 90	5 16	5 28	3 80	7 00	8 00	4 60	6 32	8 03	------	------
Cab and carriage	10 00	9 00	10 00	------	------	3 21	4 82	3 92	2 50	5 15	3 84	4 80	4 86	4 26	8 40	2 50
Distillers	15 00	9 00	------	12 00	------	3 56	7 00	5 00	4 20	------	4 02	------	------	6 00	------	------
Draymen and teamsters	15 00	10 00	12 00	9 00	9 60	2 96	5 57	3 77	1 50	5 37	3 84	3 22	4 49	4 26	8 40	2 50

TABLE N 2—Continued.

INDUSTRIES.	STATES AND COUNTRIES.															
	California	New York	Illinois (Chicago)	Pennsylvania	Maine	Germany	France	Belgium	Italy	England and Wales	Switzerland	Denmark	Scotland	Ireland	Canada (Ottawa)	Hawaiian Island
Dyers	$15 00	$13 00	$16 50	$8 88	.....	$3 45	$4 83	$6 15	$3 60	$6 18	$4 91	$4 29	$5 56	$4 86	$7 00	.....
Engravers	20 00	16 00	24 00	.....	.....	5 12	7 35	6 42	6 60	8 38	6 35	8 00	7 29	8 27	15 00	$19 00
Furriers*	7 to 12	10 00	15 00	.....	.....	4 20	7 00	6 35	4 60	8 52	4 63	5 36	7 50	8 03	14 00	.....
Gardeners	18 00	9 00	12 00	.....	.....	3 78	5 11	3 91	4 00	5 80	3 83	4 00	4 86	4 86	8 00	.....
Hatters	24 00	13 00	21 00	15 00	.....	4 36	5 50	4 60	5 20	6 10	3 84	.....	7 29	7 30	12 00	.....
Horseshoers	21 00	13 00	18 00	.....	.....	3 61	5 89	5 62	5 20	6 35	4 65	4 82	6 80	6 21	12 00	24 00
Jewelers	20 00	11 00	13 50	.....	.....	5 21	6 24	6 84	3 80	8 76	6 35	5 36	6 56	8 00	12 00	19 00
Laborers (plasterers)	18 00	10 00	15 00	9 00	.....	2 91	3 23	3 02	1 70	5 27	3 40	3 86	4 65	3 53	13 50	12 00
Hod carriers	18 00	11 00	10 50	8 00	$8 40	2 92	3 13	3 22	1 70	4 94	2 99	4 30	4 65	3 40	8 40	11 00
Masons	18 00	10 00	10 50	7 50	.....	3 15	3 23	3 09	1 70	5 07	3 50	4 29	4 65	3 65	8 40	11 00
Strikers (blacksmiths)	18 00	9 00	10 50	7 00	.....	2 94	4 72	3 29	3 40	5 30	4 43	4 82	4 63	3 79	7 00	17 50
Plumbers' assistants†	7 00	10 00	†5 70	6 00	.....	2 72	3 61	2 93	1 70	4 69	3 36	2 80	4 86	3 38	8 40	10 50
Lithographers	25 00	12 00	.....	.....	.....	5 59	7 07	5 86	.....	7 07	5 51	5 50	7 53	7 71	12 00	.....
Millwrights	24 00	14 00	30 00	.....	.....	4 18	6 74	5 00	.....	6 97	6 30	6 00	7 41	7 30	12 00	.....
Machinists	20 00	10 00	.....	.....	15 00	4 60	4 60	.....	.....	.....	4 82	4 00	.....	7 79	12 00	.....
Potters	15 00	10 00	.....	12 00	.....	3 60	4 78	4 86	5 20	5 20	5 76	4 02	.....	4 38	.....	.....
Printers	20 00	13 00	.....	12 00	9 00	.....	6 64	5 94	4 60	7 17	5 93	5 36	7 89	8 52	11 00	25 00
Pattern-makers	21 00	12 00	15 00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7 41	7 79	.....	31 00
Teachers (male)	19 99	13 00	35 00	.....	7 50	.....	7 00	7 74	5 00	9 00	.....	10 41	18 69	8 52	6 00	23 00
Teachers (female)	16 03	.....	11 00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7 70	.....	.....	.....	.....	3 00	.....
Saddle and harness	13 50	11 00	12 00	12 50	12 00	3 69	5 70	5 51	.....	6 63	5 20	5 00	5 58	6 15	7 00	19 05
Sail-makers	18 00	12 00	15 00	.....	.....	2 85	6 04	4 56	2 80	7 02	.....	4 82	6 08	8 03	.....	.....
Stevedores	24 00	12 00	18 00	.....	.....	5 70	6 72	4 36	2 00	8 44	.....	5 00	4 12	5 40	.....	12 00
Tanners	12 00	.....	15 00	9 00	.....	4 00	5 18	5 81	2 20	6 38	4 92	5 09	6 80	5 45	8 25	.....
Tailors	18 00	12 00	15 00	.....	.....	4 30	5 02	5 58	4 00	7 40	6 50	6 36	7 77	6 70	9 00	21 50
Telegraph operators	15 00	.....	19 00	.....	.....	5 12	6 92	6 35	5 20	7 65	.....	6 70	13 00	8 87	8 50	.....
Tinsmiths	15 00	11 00	12 00	.....	13 50	3 55	5 46	4 40	6 60	6 56	4 40	6 70	6 56	6 04	8 00	18 00

* Men and women. † Boys.

CHAPTER III.

STRIKES.

A strike at best is not the proper way to adjust the differences that arise from time to time between capital and labor. Such differences should be subjects for calm and dispassionate deliberation. The defeat of the engineers in their late strike against the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, is the hardest blow organized labor has received for many years, and under which it still reels. The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers was looked upon as a model organization by every body of laborers in the country. They were regarded as not only strong enough to overcome all obstacles, but, at the same time, were considered so conservative, that with a leader, who had never before failed in bringing about an amicable settlement, when a strike would occur, it was as though the engineers could not lose. That this was a mistaken view the sequel shows, and when this is coupled with the fact that no important strike within the last two years has been successful, while they have cost millions of dollars, it must be conceded that strikes do not pay. According to the report of the Labor Commissioner of New York, fifty thousand workmen engaged in strikes during 1887, in that State. They gained $944,000 in advanced wages, but lost over $2,000,000 while out of employment. The net result was a loss of over $1,000,000. Furthermore, in his report of 1886, he says: "It is a noticeable fact that nearly all the great strikes of the year, and particularly those which have resulted in a defeat, entailing an enormous loss of wages and great misery, were managed by irresponsible committees, who knew little or nothing of the trade affected, and who forced their services upon the strikers. Frequently these committees had several strikes on their hands at the same time, and certainly could give neither time nor attention to the consideration of matters fraught with so much peril." Where strikes and boycotts are due to the excessive zeal of the officers and walking delegates, in enforcing arbitrary rules against the employment of any but members of their union, in demanding the discharge or reinstatement of this or that man, the public are not disposed to regard such strike or boycott as entitled to the sympathy which would be extended in cases where the workmen were endeavoring to secure a reasonable advance of wages, or resisting a proposed reduction. It should be borne in mind by the officers of such union, that where they make themselves amenable to the law, the organization to which they belong is in the light of being an enemy to social order, and an obstruction to legitimate enterprise. The experienced leaders of the labor movement have recognized this, and have counseled conciliatory methods calculated to remove rather than intensify public prejudice. It is to be hoped that the injurious results of provoking legal prosecutions will convince unthinking enthusiasts of the folly of disregarding counsel, and precipitating needless conflicts with employers. It is well understood by those who have access to the opinions of the public outside of the unions, that the frequent recurrence of an uncalled for and unjustifiable boycott or strike, will do more to loosen the rivets of public sympathy, and injure the cause of labor, than all other causes combined. It should be understood, and seriously considered, by those who are in any way connected with the management of an organization, that the proper way is to conciliate, not to coerce; to build up, not to tear down; to unite for justice, not to conspire to injure.

They would thus help materially to undo much of the mischief done

the cause by disturbers and revolutionists, and remove the prejudices now operating to their serious disadvantage.

STRIKES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The third annual report of the United States Bureau of Labor, Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner, covers about twelve hundred pages, and gives the details of each strike and lockout occurring in the United States during a period of six years. It exhibits the facts belonging to each industrial trouble for each locality where trouble was found, without attempting to establish or decide upon the connections between them.

The following table shows the number of strikes occurring during each of the last six years, the number of establishments involved, and the average number of establishments involved in each strike:

Years.	Strikes	Establishments Involved	Average Number Establishments Involved
1881	471	2,928	6.2
1882	454	2,105	4.6
1883	478	2,759	5.8
1884	443	2,367	5.3
1885	645	2,284	3.5
1886	1,412	9,893	7.0
Totals	3,903	22,336	5.7

In 1887, the report says there were, according to the best information obtainable, eight hundred and fifty-three strikes, details of which are not available.

The report shows that during the six years covered by the investigation New York had the largest number of establishments affected both by strikes and lockouts, there being for the former nine thousand two hundred and forty-seven, and for the latter one thousand five hundred and twenty-eight. The building trades furnished six thousand and seventy-five of the total number of establishments engaged in strikes. The total number of employés involved in the whole number of strikes for the entire period is shown to have been one million three hundred and twenty-three thousand two hundred and three. The number of employés originating the strikes was one million twenty thousand one hundred and fifty-six. The number of employés in all establishments before the strikes occurred was one million six hundred and sixty thousand eight hundred and thirty-five, while the whole number employed in the establishments involved after the strikes occurred was one million six hundred and thirty-five thousand and forty-seven, a loss of twenty-five thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight. There were one hundred and three thousand and thirty-eight new employés engaged after the strikes, and thirty-seven thousand four hundred and eighty-three were brought from other places than those in which the strikes occurred.

In two thousand two hundred and fourteen establishments lockouts were ordered during the period named. In these there were one hundred and seventy-five thousand two hundred and seventy employés before the lockouts occurred, and one hundred and seventy thousand seven hundred and forty-seven after the lockouts, while the number actually locked out was

one hundred and sixty thousand eight hundred and twenty-three. There were thirteen thousand nine hundred and seventy-six new employés secured at the close of lockouts, and five thousand six hundred and eighty-two were brought from other places than those in which the lockouts occurred. "It should be remembered, however," says the report, "that these figures do not represent the actual number of individual establishments or different employés engaged, as in many cases there have been two or more strikes or lockouts affecting the same establishment in the same year. In such cases the establishments and the number of employés engaged are duplicated."

Of the whole number of employés involved in strikes during the six years covered by the report, 88.42 per cent were males and 11.58 per cent were females. Of those involved in lockouts during the same period, 69.02 per cent were males, and 31.98 per cent were females. New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Illinois represent 74.84 per cent of the whole number of establishments affected by strikes throughout the country and 89.48 per cent of the lockouts. These five States, it is stated, contain 49 per cent of all the manufacturing establishments, and employ 58 per cent of the capital invested in mechanical industries of the United States.

Of the twenty-two thousand three hundred and four establishments in which strikes occurred, eighteen thousand three hundred and forty-two strikes, or 82.24 per cent of the whole, were ordered by labor organizations; while of the two thousand two hundred and fourteen establishments in which lockouts occurred, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-three, or 79.18 per cent, were ordered by combinations of managers. Of the whole number of establishments subjected to strikes there were temporarily closed for business thirteen thousand four hundred and eleven, or 60.13 per cent; on account of lockouts, 63.23 per cent. The average duration of stoppage on account of strikes was 23 days; for lockouts, 28.4 days.

The results of the strikes, so far as gaining the objects sought are concerned, are shown to be as follows: Success followed in ten thousand three hundred and seventy-five cases, or 46.52 per cent of the whole; partial success in three thousand and four, or 13.45 per cent of the whole; and failure followed in eight thousand nine hundred and ten cases, or 39.95 per cent of the whole. By lockouts five hundred and sixty-four establishments, or 25.47 per cent of the whole, succeeded in gaining their point; one hundred and ninety, or 8.58 per cent, partly succeeded; and one thousand three hundred and thirty-nine, or 60.48 per cent, failed.

As to causes or objects of strikes, it is shown that increase of wages was the principal one—42.32 per cent. The other leading causes are given as follows: For reduction of hours, 19.48 per cent; against reduction of wages, 7.77 per cent; for increase of wages and reduction of hours, 7.59 per cent; against increase of hours, .62 per cent. Total for the five leading causes, 80.75 per cent; all other causes, 19.25 per cent.

Disclaiming absolute accuracy, the report gives the losses of employés and employers resulting from strikes and lockouts as follows: Loss to strikers during the six years covered by the investigations, $51,814,723; loss to employés through lockouts for the same period, $8,157,717; or a total wage loss to employés of $59,972,440. This loss occurred for both strikes and lockouts in twenty-four thousand five hundred and eighteen establishments; or an average loss of $2,446 to each establishment, or of nearly $40 to each striker involved. The assistance given to strikers for the same period, so far as ascertainable, amounted to $3,324,557; to those suffering from lockouts, $1,106,038; or a total of $4,430,594. These amounts, how-

ever, the Commissioner says, are undoubtedly too low. The employers' losses through strikes for the six years amounted to $30,701,553; through lockouts, $3,452,261; or a total loss to the establishments involved of $34,163,814.

The chief burden of strikes was borne by thirteen industries, viz.: Boots and shoes, three hundred and fifty-two establishments; brickmaking, four hundred and seventy-eight; building trades, six thousand and seventy-five; clothing, one thousand seven hundred and twenty-eight; cooperage, four hundred and eighty-four; food preparations, one thousand four hundred and nineteen; furniture, four hundred and ninety-one; lumber, three hundred and ninety-five; metals and metallic goods, one thousand five hundred and seventy; mining, two thousand and sixty; stone, four hundred and sixty-eight; tobacco, two thousand nine hundred and fifty-nine; transportation, one thousand four hundred and seventy-eight. These represent 89.48 per cent of the whole number subjected to strikes.

In lockouts five industries bore 79.54 per cent of the whole burden, as follows: Boots and shoes, one hundred and fifty-five establishments; building trades, five hundred and thirty-one; clothing, seven hundred and seventy-three; metals and metallic goods, seventy-six; and tobacco, two hundred and twenty-six; or a total of one thousand seven hundred and sixty-one.

Strikes are not generally successful as a means of settling the differences that arise between employers and employés. The statistics of European countries bear out this assertion. In the ten years from the beginning of 1870 to the end of 1879, the number of strikes, of which there is any record, is two thousand three hundred and fifty-two, occurring principally in England, France, and Germany.

TABLE O.

Strikes in Europe.

In the year 1870 there were	30 strikes.	In the year 1875 there were	245 strikes.
In the year 1871 there were	98 strikes.	In the year 1876 there were	229 strikes.
In the year 1872 there were	345 strikes.	In the year 1877 there were	180 strikes.
In the year 1873 there were	365 strikes.	In the year 1878 there were	268 strikes.
In the year 1874 there were	286 strikes.	In the year 1879 there were	308 strikes.

These strikes were indulged in by different trades: Carpenters, plumbers, masons, ship builders, engineers, boot and shoemakers, miners, bricklayers, carriagemakers, coopers, glass workers, drivers and carriers, laborers, printers and compositors, telegraph operators, saddlers, harnessmakers, coal miners, coopers, cotton hands, and others. By throwing these trades into departments we have the following as the result:

TABLE P.

Building trades	598 strikes.	Stone trades (not masons)	54 strikes.
Metal trades	390 strikes.	Carrying trades	39 strikes.
Colliers and miners	339 strikes.	Carriage building trades	33 strikes.
Textile trades	227 strikes.	Food and drink trades	39 strikes.
Clothing trades	163 strikes.	Leather trades (not shoes)	28 strikes.
Ships and shipping	140 strikes.	Fiber trades	22 strikes.
Pottery and glass trades	63 strikes.	Agricultural trades	18 strikes.
Wood trades	63 strikes.		

The "building trades" comprise carpenters, joiners, plumbers, slaters, bricklayers, masons, plasterers, and laborers. The most important fact in connection with the foregoing is the time lost on account of the strikes during the same period.

TABLE Q.

In the year 1870.....	68 weeks were lost.	In the year 1875.....	684 weeks were lost.
In the year 1871.....	279 weeks were lost.	In the year 1876.....	952 weeks were lost.
In the year 1872.....	988 weeks were lost.	In the year 1877.....	759 weeks were lost.
In the year 1873.....	1,093 weeks were lost.	In the year 1878.....	1,621 weeks were lost.
In the year 1874.....	812 weeks were lost.	In the year 1879.....	1,774 weeks were lost.

Making a grand total of nine thousand and twenty-seven weeks, or fifty-four thousand one hundred and sixty-two days, that the strikers lost in the aggregate.

In 1871 the engineers, numbering nine thousand, and the strike lasting twenty weeks, lost $900,000. The same year the nut and bolt makers, one thousand five hundred in number, lost $300,000 during a strike of forty weeks; the colliers, one thousand eight hundred in number, were on a strike for twelve weeks, and lost $1,900,000; in 1872 the house builders, sixteen thousand in number, were on a strike for twelve weeks, and lost $600,000; in 1873 the colliers were on a strike eleven weeks, seventy thousand of them, and lost $3,850,000; in 1878 the strike of three hundred thousand cotton hands lasted nine weeks, and their loss was $1,150,000; in 1877 the masons were on a strike thirty-three weeks, one thousand seven hundred of them, losing $280,000. The amount lost in wages alone by the strikes embraced in these statistics, not taking into account the "donations," or aid rendered by their organizations while these were on the strike, is estimated at $22,334,750 during the period of ten years. Now, out of all these strikes, aggregating two thousand three hundred and fifty-two in number, that were engaged in during this period, only seventy-one are known to have been won by the strikers, one hundred and eighty-nine are known to have been lost, ninety-one compromised, making three hundred and fifty-one accounted for, and leaving two thousand and one unaccounted for.

When you see three hundred thousand remaining out of work for nine weeks, and at the end of that time lose the strike, it must seem clear to the majority of reasonable workingmen that strikes, even if successful, seldom, if ever, prove a benefit in the end. The actual loss of wages is seldom made up by subsequent labor at a trifling advance.

STRIKE IN PHILADELPHIA.

The recent coke strike in Pennsylvania is another illustration of the grievous error into which workingmen will fall when they think a strike will benefit them materially. Ten thousand men were kept idle for twelve weeks. They lost not only their daily wages, on the average $2 25 per day, but many of them lost their little savings, the result of years of frugal economy, and suffered besides numberless untold privations. This strike, in which eleven thousand men participated, cost the laborers $996,300, which means an actual loss of $90 to each individual. It will take many a hard day's work and much patience and frugality to recover that sum, as most of it was hard cash saved in flush times. The logic of the situation is found in these few words from a Pittsburg dispatch: "If a sliding scale equal to a 12½ cents advance is arranged for them, it will take a year and nine months steady work to make up for the time they lost." Nor is the loss in wages the only one sustained, as such strikes are bound to have indirect effects. Many iron furnaces were banked during the strike for want of coke.

STRIKES IN SAN FRANCISCO.

Still another illustration of the fallacy of strikes as a panacea for all grievances is seen in the late strike of the cooks and waiters in San Francisco. This was a "sympathetic strike," inaugurated in consequence of a pending strike, and intended to uphold the members of the German, English, and American Bakers Unions in their demand for Sunday as a day of rest. Although they were strongly advised by the Federated Trades not to take such a course, the Executive Committee of the White Cooks and Waiters ordered all members in San Francisco and Oakland out on a strike. It cost the unions in the neighborhood of $5,000 a day for wages, affecting some sixteen hundred men for over two weeks. It resulted in a failure. This brings with it its own moral. There are many issues upon which the best citizens of the country are a unit. All should be inspired with the common ambition to secure for America the highest perfection of civilization and social harmony, and to hold the standard of industrial conditions upon the highest plane of intelligence, comfort, and security.

The infant organizations in San Francisco are sometimes very difficult to control. Once in awhile headlessly and heedlessly they rush into the fray, caring for nothing but the furtherance of their own selfish ends. The Candymakers and the Lasters Unions have suffered greatly by precipitating themselves without justice or forethought. This occasional ripple in the labor movement has a tendency to injure the cause, and is not conducive to strengthen any organization. "Be sure you are right, and then go ahead," is the maxim of intelligent conservative forces. Experimental disturbances are neither profitable to the employé nor employer, and should under no circumstances be resorted to as a sort of "bluff" or intimidation. A strike should have the sanction of the entire union, and not of a committee merely, which may be composed of only a few hot-heads.

According to the statistics of strikes in California during a period of six years ending 1886, one hundred and seven strikes were inaugurated; eighty-eight had the sanction of the organizations, while nineteen were unauthorized. The strikes affected six thousand seven hundred and sixty-three men and women during the period, at a loss of $324,629 to them, while the employers lost $311,093. The total number of days lost was one thousand five hundred and eight. The older labor organizations in San Francisco are opposed to strikes, which is probably owing to the selection of conservative and intelligent leaders. The New York Bureau of Labor for 1886, in this particular says: "It would be better for all concerned if the example set by a few of the older organizations were more generally followed, and only experienced men selected to conduct affairs. They should, when found to be efficient, be retained at a fair salary. Too frequent changes of affairs in labor organizations has caused much trouble in the past."

This question of strikes is met with great care and good judgment by our conservative unions. Definite and peremptory rules are laid down in the by-laws of several unions. Those of the patternmakers, bricklayers, and printers are as follows:

BROTHERHOOD OF PATTERNMAKERS.

By-Laws Relating to Strikes.

SECTION 1. Whenever a dispute arises between an employer or employers and members of this Brotherhood, the members shall lay the matter before the local union, which shall appoint an arbitration committee to adjust the difficulty. Then, if said committee cannot settle the dispute, the matter shall be referred to the union.

If a two thirds vote, by secret ballot, of the members present in such meeting shall decide that the members be sustained, then the Corresponding Secretary shall be ordered

to transmit a detailed account of the grievances to the General Secretary, who shall forward the same to the Executive Board for their consideration.

SEC. 2. In case the Executive Board shall deem the grievance of sufficient character, the President shall send the District Organizer to said city, and cause a thorough investigation to be made. The District Organizer shall transmit a detailed report of this finding to the Executive Board. If said Board deem the grievance of sufficient cause, then they can declare a strike, provided the local union has acted in conformity with section one of this Article.

SEC. 3. The Executive Board shall then have the power, if they deem it advisable, to declare a strike. The General Secretary shall notify the local union in question within five days whether the strike or lockout is sanctioned.

SEC. 4. Not more than one strike in any case shall be permitted at any time by the authority and under the jurisdiction of the Brotherhood, and only one hour's strike notice shall be given the employers.

SEC. 5. In case the Executive Board fails to sanction any difficulty within five days, the local union can appeal to a general vote of all the local unions. The General President shall submit the appeal to a vote of the local unions, which shall be returned within fifteen days after date of issuing circulars. And if the appeal is sustained by a majority of all unions voting, the General President shall proceed as this constitution directs.

SEC. 6. In order to create a fund for the support of such members as may be engaged in authorized strikes or lockouts, it shall be required that each local union shall set aside fifteen per cent of their gross monthly receipts for a resistance fund.

SEC. 7. This fund shall not be used or appropriated for any other purpose, but shall remain as a separate fund in the custody of the local union, subject to an order of the General President, in conformity with this constitution. Any local union failing to comply with this section shall, after a notice of thirty days, be suspended by the Executive Board.

SEC. 8. When a strike is authorized, the General Secretary shall telegraph to the Presidents of all the local unions that a strike is pending. The President of each local union thus notified shall order the Financial Secretary to forward by telegraph the quota of resistance fund necessary for the support of the union on strike. Local unions failing to comply with this provision within five days from date of said notice shall be suspended.

SEC. 9. Strike benefits shall be paid to members at the rate of $5 per week to married men, and $4 per week to single men, and $1 50 to apprentices if called out. In no case shall a fraction of a week be allowed for. The payment to commence the second week after the strike has been authorized.

SEC. 10. No member of the Brotherhood shall be entitled to any strike benefits unless he is a member in good standing for at least one week prior to the strike.

SEC. 11. Any local union or member entering into an unauthorized strike shall not be sustained or receive support from the Brotherhood.

SEC. 12. Unions sending money to each other must remit the same by telegraph, or express, or by post office order. The Secretary transmitting such money shall immediately send a receipt to the Financial Secretary, and a copy of such receipt to the President of the union from whence the money came.

SEC. 13. All strike money and its expenditure shall be reported to the General Secretary, who shall publish the same in his quarterly report by circular to the unions.

SEC. 14. Under no circumstances shall any moneys of the resistance fund be sent to the officer of the Executive Board of the Brotherhood.

BRICKLAYERS ASSOCIATION.

By-Laws, Strikes.

It shall be the sense of this association that a strike should only be resorted to when all other means should fail to effect a redress of grievances, and must first be recommended by the Board of Directors.

TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION.

By-Laws, Strikes.

SECTION 1. Whenever any difficulty shall arise between the members of this union and their employers (except for money due on wage account, or in the case of a threatened reduction or infraction of the scale of prices) the President shall, within twenty-four hours, call a meeting of the union (of which all members shall be constitutionally notified) to take action thereon, and no member shall vote on such question unless he is in good standing and has belonged to this union at least six months. Should three fourths of the members present decide in favor of a strike, the Executive Committee shall immediately prepare and transmit an accurate statement of the facts in the difficulty, together with the number of men involved (union and non-union) to the President of the International Typographical Union, and the union shall await a decision of their appeal before taking further action.

SEC. 2. In no case shall the men in any office determine on a strike, except for wages due; but in the event of any invasion by the employer or foreman of the scale of prices, or any portion of this constitution, the employés shall be required to communicate the facts in the case to the Executive Committee, who shall, if their decision be not satisfactory to both parties, call a special meeting of the union to determine the merits of the

question; *provided*, that the next stated meeting of the union shall be distant more than one week from the date of reference to the Executive Committee, or the exigencies of the case may require immediate action; and, *provided further*, that no strike shall be authorized by such special or stated meeting unless a majority of the members in good standing are present, and then only by a three fourths vote on scale of prices at such meeting. In the interim between the date of dispute and the final action of the officers and members, the office in which such dispute arises shall in nowise be clogged or retarded, but proceed as though no such difference had arisen.

SEC. 3. When there shall have been a strike ordered, according to the provisions of this Article, all union men shall be deemed to have been notified.

CARPENTERS AND JOINERS.

By-Laws. Strikes.

SECTION 1. When any difficulty arises between the members of any union and their employers, the members shall lay the matter before their local union, and if approved of by the union, the President shall appoint an Arbitration Committee to wait upon the employers, and endeavor to adjust the difficulty. Said committee shall report at the next stated meeting, and the local union shall then take such course as is prescribed in this constitution.

SEC. 2. If a two thirds vote, by secret ballot, of the members present in such meeting shall decide that the members be sustained, then the Recording Secretary shall be ordered to at once transmit a detailed account of the difficulty and the exact vote and action of the local union to the General Secretary, who shall call the Executive Board together within forty-eight hours, to act upon the application.

SEC. 3. The Executive Board shall then have the power, if they deem it advisable, to sustain the action of the local union, provided the local union has acted in strict conformity with this constitution. The General Secretary shall notify the local union in question within three days after action of the Executive Board, whether the application is sanctioned.

SEC. 4. Not more than one strike in any case shall be permitted at the same time by the authority and under the jurisdiction of the Board, and only twenty-four hours' notice shall be given the employers after the sanction of the Executive Board is received.

SEC. 5. In case the Executive Board fails to sanction the application within five days, the General Secretary must report such action to the General President; the local union can appeal to the General President for a general vote of all the local unions. The General President shall submit the appeal and facts to a vote of local unions, which shall be returnable to the General President within fifteen days after date of issuing the appeal. And if the appeal is sustained by two thirds of all members voting, the General President shall then instruct the Executive Board to proceed as this constitution directs.

SEC. 6. In no case shall a local union take action on any difficulty until all members in good standing of such union are duly notified, and it shall be the duty of the Recording Secretary to give the members at least two weeks' notice of any demand upon the employers.

SEC. 7. Any member going to work on a job declared on strike or lockout in accordance with the laws of this Brotherhood, shall be fined such sum as the local union may decide, but not less than $5 for each day so employed.

SEC. 8. A local union desiring assistance from the Brotherhood can not order a strike until legal authority has been received from the Executive Board to do so. All local strikes without sanction of the Brotherhood shall be at the sole risk of the local union, and should be discouraged, and renders the local union liable to expulsion from the Brotherhood.

SEC. 9. When a strike or lockout is duly sanctioned, the General Secretary shall notify all the local unions as to the nature of the difficulty, and shall call upon each local union to send a fixed sum per week to the Financial Secretary of the local union involved; the President and Recording Secretary of each local union thus notified shall order its Treasurer to forward the sum required each week. Local unions failing to comply with this provision within five days from date of notice shall be suspended.

SEC. 10. Strike benefits shall be paid to members at the rate of $5 per week to married men and $4 per week to single men, to commence one week after the strike has been authorized by the Executive Board. In no case shall the fraction of a week be allowed.

SEC. 11. No member of the Brotherhood shall be entitled to any strike benefits unless he is a member in good standing for at least three months prior to the strike.

SEC. 12. Unions sending money to each other must remit the same by telegraph, or by express, or post office money order; the Treasurer transmitting such money shall notify the President of the union on strike. The Financial Secretary receiving such money shall immediately send a receipt to the Treasurer of the union from whence the money came, and a copy of such receipt to the Financial Secretary of said union.

SEC. 13. All strike money and its itemized expenditure shall be reported to the General President, who shall publish the same in his monthly report to the local unions.

SEC. 14. In order to create a fund for the support of such members as may be engaged in legally authorized strikes or lockouts, it shall be required that each local union shall set aside five cents per capita each month for a protective fund.

SEC. 15. This fund shall not be used or appropriated for any other purpose, but shall remain as a separate fund in the custody of the local union, subject to the order of the

Executive Board, in conformity with the constitution. Any local union failing to comply with this section, after a notice of thirty days, shall be suspended.

SEC. 16. Under no circumstances shall any money of the protective fund be sent to the General Secretary or Executive Board.

SEC. 17. The General President, in conjunction with the Executive Board, shall have power, when satisfied from facts and information in their possession that a strike should cease, to declare the same at an end, so far as the financial aid of the Brotherhood is concerned, and shall so notify all local unions.

SEC. 18. In case at any time the protective fund should become exhausted in the support of any legally authorized strike, the Executive Board shall have power to levy such special assessment as may be necessary to sustain such strike.

CANDYMAKERS STRIKE.

On September 12, 1887, the strike on L. Sarioni & Co. was ordered by the Candymakers Union, and which, as far as the firm is concerned, is on yet. The origin of the affair differs slightly, according to the version of both parties. The union men claim that the firm installed a non-union man as foreman in place of the union foreman, whereupon the men struck, leaving the factory in a body upon Mr. Sarioni refusing to reinstate the union foreman and discharge the "scab" foreman.

Mr. Sarioni, the senior member of the firm, denies the allegation of the union, claiming that on the particular morning of the strike he found the men idling, and refusing to go to work until the foreman, who was late, should put in an appearance. "I thought," says Mr. Sarioni, "that the men were incompetent to do the work without a guiding genius, so instructed the non-union and eastern man to act as foreman until the regular foreman's return, upon which the men struck." He furthermore avers that he never shall employ a union man again, as such high, dictatorial proceedings are not in furtherance to his idea of justice. The union men were immediately employed by another firm, so the strike virtually injured no one.

FURNITURE WORKERS STRIKE.

In the latter part of August last, six cabinet makers employed by Kreling Brothers, and members of the Furniture Workers Union, signed and handed to Martin Kreling, one of the firm, a petition asking for the introduction of the nine-hour system with ten hours pay. It was done without any consultation with their fellow workmen, and after the demand was conceded, and the men had promised to return to work, the union sent a committee to the firm to inform them that the men would not be allowed to go to work unless all of the employés would first join the union. To this the employés objected, and through the firm invited the six strikers to return to their places and show some kind of cordiality toward their fellow workers. The invitation was rejected, and the whole matter was given into the hands of the Federated Trades to arbitrate and adjust. Meantime the factory continued on the nine-hour schedule, notwithstanding the fact that other union factories kept up the old ten-hour schedule.

The Kreling employés state that in nearly all shops both union and non-union men are working together, and no effort is made to make them union shops or even to introduce the nine-hour system. They say they do not object to the union or to union principles, nor do their employers, but they insist upon being admitted upon a fair and equal basis with other members. They say that the union wants them to pay an initiation fee of $5 in addition to a heavy fine of $20 apiece, as a punishment for violating union ordinances.

They finally concluded to make a proposition to the union, stating the

terms upon which they would join, and the following gives the substance of it:

First—The boycott against the Kreling theater, store, and factory to be declared off immediately, as unjustified, the firm having nothing whatever to do with the controversy.
Second—There shall be no fine levied against any individual in the employment of the firm of F. W. Kreling & Sons, be he an ex-union member or not.
Third—Every one shall pay an initiation fee of $1, and all employés to be taken in as a body.
Fourth—The union and the employés shall jointly appoint a person to hold the initiation fees until all employés are duly initiated into the union, the money to be paid to the union or its designated officer after the initiation of the employés.
Fifth—It shall be left to the option of the employés, or any one of them, to join either Union No. 15 or No. 25, or the Wood Carvers Union, if he be a wood carver.
Sixth—The three unions named to agree to these conditions.
Seventh—These unions to pledge themselves to withdraw all union members from shops where non-union men are employed, or the nine-hour system with ten hours pay is not strictly enforced, after February first next.

The difficulty was compromised by the non-union men joining the union and paying $2 50 initiation. The union men who refused to strike paid, in the aggregate, a $100 fine for the violation of union ordinances.

GLOVERS STRIKE.

On October 24, 1887, nearly all the employés of the principal glove manufactories of this city struck against a proposed reduction of wages. About three hundred and twenty-one, of whom two hundred and thirty were girls, quit work. The employés were endeavoring to secure a uniform schedule of prices in all the shops, instead of the varying rate which had heretofore prevailed. It was not for an increase of prices, but a desire to adopt the union schedule prevailing in the East. A copy was sent to the employers of each firm employing union help for their consideration. The schedule was presented not as a demand, but as a basis for mutual discussion and arbitration. The bosses met the schedule as a signal for warfare, and, without notice, posted in their various shops that on the Monday following a schedule of their own, showing a reduction of 20 to 50 per cent, as compared with the prices they had been paying, would be enforced. Upon this the employés walked out.

The manufacturers claim that the great majority of the statements made by the union was falsehoods. The union asserts that they are compelled to work from twelve to fifteen hours daily, which the manufacturers claim as false, as the shops are only kept open nine and one half hours per day, and but eight on Saturdays. In consequence of this denial the following communication was published by the Executive Committee of the Glovers Protective Union:

On Monday morning last the manufacturers posted a schedule of prices in the various shops, by which the prices in most of the branches of glove making, and including all the departments of women's work, were reduced from 15 to 50 per cent below the present paid wages. In no instance have the girls' wages been such as was stated, namely, from $8 to $18 a week. The rank and file have earned from $4 to $10 a week, a few skillful operators making $12 a week. The statement that the factories only run nine and a half hours is correct, but the fact is concealed that as most of the girls work piecework they have to take work home evenings to make sufficient for their wants.

The wax-threaders are not reduced 5 cents a dozen, as stated, but from 10 cents to 25 cents per single dozen, making a cut in some kinds of work of $1 a day.

The prices of gloves have not been reduced the least, and the manufacturers in the East have just lately voluntarily increased the wages of their employés, so that the only reason for the cut is the simple desire of the manufacturers to increase their profits, and the injustice was so glaring that nearly all the cutters joined in the strike, although they were not materially affected by the new schedule, the manufacturers having no chance to reduce their wages, as the difference of wages between the East and the Pacific Coast in that branch is so small, that if the difference in the cost of living, etc., is considered, the balance is in favor of the East.

The movement is not for an increase of wages, but a protest against a reduction by which prices are in some cases cut down to one half and mainly effected in women and girls, a class of society that already have difficulties enough to contend with in the shape of cheap competing labor and the efforts on every side to reduce their wages to a mere pittance.

These statements can, if necessary, be substantiated by a hundred affidavits, and any assertions to the contrary we brand as unmitigated falsehoods and simply efforts to blind the eyes of the public.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE GLOVERS PROTECTIVE UNION.

SAN FRANCISCO, October 26.

The strike was a failure, and all the glove makers, who could do so, returned to work at the old rates.

MESSENGER BOYS STRIKE.

The messenger boys have at various times struck for higher wages. The duration of such strikes are very short, as the supply of boys, in this service, far exceeds the demand. During the continuance of such periodical disturbances the juveniles parade the streets, bearing a number of transparencies, such as "We cannot support our mothers on 65 cents a day," "All we want is enough to live on and pay for our shoes and clothes," "All we want is two Sundays a month."

These youngsters seem to enjoy themselves thoroughly, and congregate around street corners, playing pitch and toss, marbles, etc.

Law Prohibiting Boys Being Sent to Houses of Ill-Fame.

At the last session of the Legislature a law was passed to prevent telegraph companies from sending boys to houses of ill-fame. During the time of the last strike, in order to ascertain to what extent Section 1389 of the Penal Code was enforced, I canvassed the telegraph districts of San Francisco, and found that the law was shamefully violated. The practice of sending minors to places of questionable repute by the telegraph companies was publicly done. There was no more secrecy of the practice than if the Act was never passed. The Act was approved March 15, 1887, and reads:

No minor in the employ of any telephone company, special delivery company, or association, or any other corporation, or person or persons, engaged in the delivery of packages, letters, notes, messages, or other matter, shall be assigned by such corporations, or person or persons, to hire such minors to keepers of houses, variety theaters, or other places of questionable repute, nor to permit them to enter such places of illegal or questionable calling; that this law shall apply to managers, superintendents, and agents of such corporations, and to be enforced against them.

This law never has been enforced and the offense seemed to be as general then as it was before its enactment.

The life of the messenger boy is a hard one. The encouragements and facilities open and tending to his downfall and disgrace are deplorable facts. His moral and physical ruin is a certainty when he is once allotted the task of delivering messages to, or acting as lackey for, the inmates or keepers of houses of ill-fame. The prevalence of crime in San Francisco no doubt is largely due to the want of an industrial training for boys and girls, and to the neglect on the part of parents and employers to look after their moral and social training. There was in the neighborhood of four hundred boys employed by the telegraph and telephone companies in San Francisco. The San Francisco and American District Telegraph Company employed about three hundred boys, many of whom were engaged in

delivering messages to, and running errands for, people of questionable character. They brought meals to their rooms: went to an opium joint and purchased opium; to a whisky mill for liquor: to a cigar store for tobacco; and even were hired for the purpose of alluring victims to these dens of iniquity by delivering letters of assignation. Of course the managers or superintendents of the District Telegraph Companies did not know the nature of the errands upon which the boys were sent by the people who hired their services. The companies kept an account of the time the boy was out, and were satisfied and asked no questions if the proper amount of coin for the time spent was paid in by the boy upon his return. The places where the boys generally purchased opium were at No. 5 Spofford Alley; the southwest corner of Sacramento and Dupont Street; and No. 765 Dupont Street. Boys were very anxious to be employed in the delivery of messages to those living in houses of bad repute, in consequence of the perquisites. There was money in it for them. When men are on a debauch they are generally reckless of how they spend their money, and the messenger boy whom they employed was liberally rewarded. Boys described to me scenes of depravity which they witnessed in opium joints and other places, which were simply horrible. How can the weak minded, or the neglected, or homeless among them, resist the temptation to indulge in the fascinating pipe, or sparkling wine, or other vice, where night after night they witnessed scenes of debauchery? It was told to me that the boys sometimes pay money out of their own pockets to the company, as if coming from the party who hired them, in order to prolong their stay in some of these places, where jollity and sin flourished. Opium houses, or "joints," as they are called, can be found in a great many places in San Francisco. Here is a list of some of them; No. 633 California Street: No. 523 Kearny Street; No. 644 Sacramento Street; No. 641 Sacramento Street; No. 807 Kearny Street; No. 425 Bush Street; No. 526 Pine Street; No. 604 Pine Street; No. 250 Sutter Street; corner of Jackson and Stockton Streets.

The rate the company charged for the use of the boys was as follows: Fifteen cents per half hour (least), 20 cents for forty minutes, 30 cents per hour, 25 cents for fifty minutes, 5 cents for every additional ten minutes over the hour. The boys when working overtime got 6 cents an hour. The Western Union Telegraph boys are employed exclusively in the delivery of telegrams. They are paid at the rate of 2½ cents per message, and average from $22 to $25 per month. They work twelve hours per day. Night boys receive $20 per month. The San Francisco District Telegraph and messenger boys are paid 5 cents per telegram and 6 cents per message. Boys on the night watch, who work from 6 P. M. to 6 A. M., with one hour for lunch, are paid 75 cents per night. They have to pay for the uniform which they wear, out of their wages. Formerly the boys averaged from $1 to $1 25 a day, but lately, in consequence of the greater number employed, they can average only from 50 cents to 75 cents per day—that is, for day boys. On Sundays the American District boys are paid 65 cents per day.

The Chief of Police of San Francisco determined to put a stop to the flagrant violation of the law forbidding the sending of messenger boys to houses of ill-fame, and had the manager or superintendent of one of the telegraph companies arrested. After some litigation the company surrendered, and the law is now enforced.

SAILORS STRIKE AT SAN PEDRO.

On the ninth day of December, 1887, in the port of San Pedro, Los Angeles County, I began an investigation into the origin, cause, and extent of the labor strikes then pending in that locality.

The strike commenced on December first, and I found there were about four hundred men out of work; about half of whom were sailors and the rest longshoremen. The latter had been employed in lumber yards, and in the loading and unloading of vessels which are almost entirely engaged in the lumber business.

In the course of my investigation, I examined the officers and many members of the several labor organizations concerned in the strike: the agents of the Shipowners Association, and the Coast Seamen's Union, masters of vessels, seamen, and those connected with the dispensation of justice and preservation of the peace, and the owners and foremen of the lumber yards.

My first inquiry related to acts of violence or disturbance of the peace. I found that two men only had been arrested for using threatening language; that they had been tried in the city of Los Angeles and acquitted. Not the slightest apprehension of violence was felt by employers and agents, and peace and good order prevailed. Sheriff Keyes informed me that he had been called upon to furnish twenty-five or thirty men to preserve the peace, but he found half the number amply sufficient.

Cause of the Strike at San Pedro.

I examined first the officers of the Coast Seamen's Union as to the cause of the strike; and their testimony showed that for about three weeks prior to December first (when the strike began), Mr. Savage, local agent of the Shipowners Association, assisted by an ex-policeman from San Francisco, named Burdett, had been causing the discharge of sailors who were employed on the wharves and in the lumber yards of San Pedro. These men were discharged because they were suspected of being members of the Coast Seamen's Union.

The avowed purpose of Mr. Savage, on behalf of the Shipowners Association, was to drive these men to sea, where they belonged. On being asked why the Shipowners Association pursued this course, the answer was: Because there is a scarcity of sailors, and the wages of those employed are therefore high. It is easier to get men to take the places of men working along shore than to get the trained hands required at sea. There was no disguise in this matter—the object and purpose were openly stated. Some twenty men were thus picked out and discharged.

Action Taken by the Men.

The men who felt themselves in the same plight with those discharged, not knowing how soon their turn would arrive, held a consultation among themselves, and determined, with one of the two local assemblies of the Knights of Labor, to quit work in a body. About one hundred and fifty men thus voluntarily left their employment.

Action Taken by the Sailors.

The sailors employed on the vessels in the port of San Pedro also held a meeting by themselves, and came to the conclusion that the only way to make the shipowners realize the condition of things in San Pedro was for them to refuse to discharge lumber from vessels, and to tell the captains to procure men in their places. As soon as this was done, the captains locked the forecastles, and told the men to take their clothes out of the vessel, or else they would have them stored in a warehouse, to remain there at the sailors' expense. When vessels were nearly discharged, the

captains would refuse to pay the men any part of their wages. Some of the sailors had as much as $100 due them. The aggregate loss to the sailors of fourteen vessels in the port was computed at $3,000. About sixty sailors from the vessels had joined the strike.

The Question of Wages.

The question of wages did not enter at all into this strike. A short time previous the men employed in the lumber yards made a demand for an advance of 50 cents a day. Half of this sum was conceded by the employers, with which the men expressed themselves satisfied. In one of the lumber yards of San Pedro men are paid $2 50 per day, and in the other yards $2 25. Men employed in unloading lumber from the vessels receive $3 75 per day. Sailors were paid $45 to $50 per month.

I then proceeded to make inquiries from Mr. Savage, attorney at law, and agent of the Shipowners Association, and from captains of vessels, with the following result:

The Object of the Strike at San Pedro.

The main object of the strike is to force the Shipowners Association to discharge their agent in San Pedro, Mr. Savage, who is personally obnoxious to both sailors and longshoremen. The Coast Seamen's Union want to ship their men through their agent, Charles Hendrickson. The captains said they were willing to deal with the sailors directly, and the owners of vessels give them full permission to do so. This has not been the practice for a long time in consequence of the opposition of the Coast Seamen's Union. They deny that anything has been done, either by the Shipowners Association or by the captains of vessels, with the object of reducing seamen's wages.

Sailors in Eureka received $38, in San Francisco $40, while in San Pedro they were not satisfied with receiving $45 and $50 per month, but demanding $55.

Sailors Brought from San Francisco.

On that very morning—Friday, December ninth—nineteen sailors had been brought down to San Pedro, at the expense of the Shipowners Association, to take the places of striking sailors. These men had been met at the railroad depot in Los Angeles, plied with liquor, tampered with, and the result was they refused to fulfill the contracts they had signed in San Francisco, and had joined the strikers.

A man named Britton had been employed by the Shipowners Association to take charge of and accompany these men from San Francisco to San Pedro. When asked how and where these men had procured the liquor, he answered that the men had obtained the liquor after leaving San Francisco, and that it had been smuggled in by means to him unknown.

Where the Liquor Came From.

I examined five or six of the nineteen men brought down by Britton, and the testimony was corroborative and accumulative that he himself had bought and paid for a demijohn of whisky which he had given to the men. Knights of Labor had mixed among the men at the railroad depot and given them liquor to drink.

Why they Joined the Strikers.

They testified that they had signed articles in the Shipowners Association office in San Francisco to work on certain named vessels, to sail to certain ports, at wages of $40 per month. When asked why they broke through their agreement, they answered that before signing the articles in the office in San Francisco they asked if any trouble or strike existed in San Pedro. The agent, Mr. Carpenter, told them no. None of the men belonged to the Coast Seamen's Union. They would not be the means of taking the bread out of men's mouths, especially men of their own craft. The men were not only penniless, but their clothes, packed in trunk or satchel, had been checked by Mr. Britton, and he now held the checks in his possession and refused to deliver them up. All their meals, while on the road, had been paid for by the agent of the Shipowners Association. Four men had been brought by this Association on the seventh instant, and were taken on board vessels accompanied by officers, who prevented anybody having access to them.

Vessels Without Crews.

There were nineteen vessels lying at the wharves or in the stream at San Pedro. Six of these were ready to sail, but were unprovided with sailors. There were only four men ashore from vessels lying on the outside.

Effects of the Strike.

Contractors and builders in Los Angeles complained that work on buildings had come to a standstill in consequence of the lack of lumber. Builders were afraid to enter upon a contract to finish work by a certain time, through fear of their supply of lumber being cut short. Men engaged in every branch of the building trade were necessarily thrown out of work. Owners of lumber yards immediately set to work to engage new hands, and experienced no great difficulty in getting a supply of raw, inexperienced hands. With shipowners and masters of vessels, the task was far more difficult, as the risk was too great to put to sea with men knowing nothing of the duties of seamen.

The Labor Organizations.

After an investigation among the officers of the labor organizations of San Pedro and Los Angeles, I learned that the trouble originated in an organization known as the Longshoremen and Lumbermen's Association, which was started about six months ago in San Pedro. There are two assemblies of the Knights of Labor in San Pedro. The older and stronger one, having a membership of about one hundred and fifty, opposed the strike from the beginning, and never yielded until it was forced into it by the younger and weaker. The complaint is general, both on the part of lumber merchants and shipowners, and on the part of some of the officers of the labor organizations, that three or four over-zealous or designing men belonging to the Longshoremen and Lumbermen's Association, as well as to the lately organized assembly of Knights of Labor, have brought all this trouble about without proper justification or reasonable cause. More than that, these men forced their assembly into a strike in a manner violating the rules of their order, for they acted without the necessary authority from higher sources.

The Men Who Suffered.

The men connected with the first or older branch of Knights of Labor refused at first to join in the strike, and continued in this attitude until forced to join by orders from superior authority in Los Angeles. Many of these men were but ill-prepared for a strike. They had put up for themselves little homes which had not been paid for. They were paying by weekly or monthly installments for the land and the lumber. If they should fail in those payments, they were liable to lose all that they had already invested. Many of them had families to support, and how were they to provide the necessaries of life in a place where there was no other field of industry?

Efforts at Arbitration.

Early in the strike, efforts were made to arbitrate difficulties and grievances. I made careful inquiry into what had been done. A difference amounting to a question of veracity exists between the contending parties, as to the question from whom did the propositions for a settlement emanate. But as no question exists as to the correctness of the propositions themselves, I herewith submit an affidavit made by W. S. Wolfe and Robert Adams, representing the Knights of Labor, which contains the substance of said propositions:

STATE OF CALIFORNIA, County of Los Angeles. } ss.

W. S. Wolfe and Robert Adams, being first duly sworn, each for himself deposes and says:

On Thursday morning, December 1, 1887, we, the undersigned, were called to San Pedro to investigate the cause of the strike, and to settle the matter, if possible, by arbitration.

We called on W. H. Savage, the agent of the Shipowners Association, who made us three propositions, as follows:

First—He would not discharge any members of the Knights of Labor for belonging to the Coast Seamen's Union, if they had been a member of the Knights of Labor six months.

This we promptly refused to accept.

Second—He reduced the time to three months.

This we also refused.

Third—He then suggested reducing the time to forty days, to which we made the following answer: "Reduce it to writing."

This was to give us time to hold a short conference outside the door. On stepping back into the room, he read the forty-day proposition, which we refused at once, stating that it would give our locals no relief, as he could then go on discharging Knights because they were found to be members of the Coast Seamen's Union.

We then stated that if he would reduce the time to thirty days we would submit it to the boys, but that we had no idea they would accept it. This he refused to do, and the conference closed.

Further deponents saith not.

W. S. WOLFE.
R. ADAMS.

Subscribed and sworn to before me this tenth day of December, 1887.

ROBT. N. BULLA,
Notary Public.

As this attempt at arbitration was abortive, no further efforts tending to conciliation were attempted up to the time of my arrival.

The stand taken by the Knights of Labor was, that they were fighting for a *principle*—something higher and nobler than any question of mere wages.

They denied the right of any man, or any set of men, to prescribe what organization a man may belong to, and what he may not, as long as the aims and objects of such organization were not in conflict with the laws of the land, nor did not infringe upon the legal rights of another. Every

American citizen, they declared, was fully guaranteed and protected in such rights by the Constitution of the United States, and they were not going to allow these rights to be taken from them. On the other hand, the agent of the Shipowners Association, captains of vessels, and lumber merchants, emphatically deny that they have discharged men on the ground of belonging to any particular labor organization. As far as my inquiries went, I have, however, come to the conclusion that sailors working along shore had been discharged who were members of the Coast Seamen's Union, and who were discharged because of that very membership.

Seeing the condition of things as thus described, I looked to find some mode of settlement. An abnormal condition of affairs existed which should be ended without delay.

The Deputy Sheriff had fifteen men patrolling the neighborhood day and night, as conservators of the public peace.

The organization known as the Coast Seamen's Union had been opposed from the very beginning to this strike on the part of some of its members. The resources of the union have been heavily taxed to provide for a large number of men out of work.

Upon inquiry I found the members of the Executive Council of the Knights of Labor prepared to negotiate upon, what appeared to me, most simple and reasonable terms. All they asked was a guarantee from the Shipowners Association and the lumber merchants that men should not be ostracized, that is, that they should not be refused employment or discharged from their work because they belonged to any particular labor organization; or, as they put it, "to any organization not opposed to the laws of the land."

Some of the captains and lumber merchants to whom I spoke expressed themselves as not caring to what labor organization a man belonged, and they were willing to accept these terms. But when I came into the presence of the agent of the Shipowners Association, Mr. Savage, I found that gentleman inexorable. He declined to negotiate upon any terms, for, as he said, there was no use in treating with men who would not consider themselves bound by any contract or agreement, oral or written, and who would break the same at their pleasure. The only way to treat with the strikers, or their representatives, in his opinion, was to get the whip-hand of them, and then compel them to submit to whatever terms he pleased to grant. The captains of vessels, who were present, knowing that Mr. Savage was acting under instructions from headquarters, tacitly acquiesced in his decision. The tender of my services as arbitrator was thus summarily rejected.

End of the Longshoremen Strike.

At a meeting of the Knights of Labor, held on Thursday evening, December fifteenth, the strike of the longshoremen was declared off, and the men were at liberty to return to work. Most of them applied at the lumber yards on the following day, but few were taken back. The owner of the Pedro lumber yard refused point blank to take back any of the strikers.

On the same day I had another interview with Mr. Savage, and he promised to use his influence with the lumber merchants to have all the members of the older assembly of the Knights of Labor, who had opposed the strike, restored to their places. Neither shipowners nor lumber merchants will ever again, as they affirm, employ any one of the four or five men who have been conspicuous in causing the strike.

Summing Up.

The first conclusion to be drawn is, that in a strike where so large a number of men were concerned, and so much bitter feeling evoked on both sides, all persons having the welfare of the State at heart should be gratified that peace and good order prevailed. Few cases of drunkenness were to be noted. The local Justice had no cases of a criminal character brought before him in which any of the strikers was the culprit.

The second conclusion is, that strikes should be resorted to by labor organizations only when all other efforts to obtain a redress of grievances have failed. This is the lesson which has been often inculcated by the Chief Master Workman of the Knights of Labor in the United States, Mr. Powderly. "Fools rush in where angels fear to tread," is an adage exemplified by the conduct of certain men in San Pedro. A strike entered upon so recklessly without the sanction of higher authority within the organization, with no proper effort having been made by peaceful negotiation to settle differences, did not deserve, and could not expect, a successful issue. The inevitable results have been, what they always have and ever will be, the depletion to a considerable extent of the funds in the order's treasury, and deprivation and want to many men, women, and children. With regard to the alleged causes of the trouble, which culminated in the strike, it is difficult to point them out clearly and satisfactorily, they are so befogged with mutual recrimination.

No testimony worthy of consideration reached me that members of the labor organization in San Pedro used any violence for the purpose of compelling men to join their ranks, or forcing them to quit work because they were non-union.

The whole contention boiled down amounts to this: Whether the shipowners shall compel sailors to ship through the agent of their association, or whether the Coast Seamen's Union shall force said association to accept sailors shipped through the agency of their union. Naturally, feelings of a bitter and hostile nature have been engendered between the officers of these organizations on both sides. It has been the same everywhere in the ports of the lakes, in the ports along the Atlantic States, as well as in those along this coast. Both sides, the employers as well as the employed, have a perfect moral, as well as legal, right to declare who shall act as their agents. Unfortunately, the men selected for such posts are not often men of discretion and cool judgment. The result is friction, hasty action, and sometimes disastrous consequences.

If an agency could be established, controlled by the government, or under the immediate supervision of its officers, the causes of dissension would be obviated or removed.

Many of the sailors to whom I have spoken say they cannot be induced to ship through the Shipowners Agency, but are ready and willing to treat directly with the captains of vessels. As many of the latter expressed themselves ready to deal directly with the men, some *modus operandi* may be devised by which the inclinations of both in this same direction may be reconciled.

LASTERS STRIKE.

Several minor strikes were inaugurated by the Lasters Union against Cahn, Nicklsberger & Co. to compel them to discharge a force of apprentices, which the firm took to teach them different parts of the business.

The members of the union claim that instead of being taught the trade in all its branches, one branch was taught on the commonest kind of stock,

and came into competition with the skilled labor. The firm kept 15 per cent of their wages back until their contract was completed, when, owing to some dissatisfaction, the boys quit and forfeited their 15 per cent. The firm then agreed to hire no more boys than the union allowed to a shop. This agreement lasted until August 19, 1887, when three union men were notified that unless they sent in their resignations to the union there would be no more work for them. Upon this they informed the union men, who, fifteen in number, quit work. The matter was arbitrated, and the men returned to work a few days after.

PLASTERERS STRIKE.

In March, 1888, the Plasterers Union had a slight difference with a contractor, in consequence of employing his brother, a non-union man, on the New City Hall. About twenty men quit work upon a refusal to discharge the brother. A conference was held, and in a day or so everything was amicably settled by the brother joining the union.

STONECUTTERS STRIKE (ROCKLIN).

In October, 1887, it was decided by the Stonecutters Union to demand $4 for a day's work, and they subsequently notified all contractors to that effect. Contractors were given the option of employing any man by the day or otherwise, as they saw fit, provided they paid by a price list compiled so as to be in unison with the day wages. All parties were perfectly satisfied, with the exception of one contractor, who said he would sooner run his works with non-union men than submit to the dictates of any union. He accordingly discharged all men who were holding offices in the union, and put on an excess of apprentices; the granite cutters allowing one apprentice and one tool sharpener to every "gang" of ten stonecutters, each apprentice to serve two years.

TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION (SAN BERNARDINO).

In January, 1888, San Bernardino inaugurated its first strike, when the union printers working on the "San Bernardino Times," including also the apprentice boys, dropped work and left the place. The trouble was brought about by the proprietor of the "Times" employing non-union men at the "case," and in the job and press departments, with the intention of getting rid of the union men as soon as possible. He openly affirmed his antagonism to union printers, saying he would not have a union man in the office.

BREWERS AND MALSTERS STRIKE.

In the case of the strike of the beer brewers and malsters (shown in the tables), the bosses had to acceed to nearly all the demands of the union. The following contract, regulating and decreasing the hours of labor, substituting weekly instead of monthly payments, was accepted. One hundred and twelve members participated in the lockout when it took place, which number dwindled down to forty by the time it was won. Between $9,500 and $10,000 were lost in wages during its continuance, while the union expenses amounted to $3,000:

ARTICLES OF AGREEMENT.

ARTICLE I.

Only union men shall be employed, but when it is impossible to get capable union men, the employers shall have the right to hire non-union men, with the understanding that such men shall immediately apply for membership to the union.

ARTICLE II.

All locked out and striking members of the Beer Brewers and Malsters Union, now out of employment, shall be given employment either in a brewery or malt house immediately.

ARTICLE III.

All non-union men now employed, upon application, shall be accepted as members of the union.

ARTICLE IV.

Should any employé, through sickness, be prevented from performing his work, such employé shall, after regaining his health, be reinstated in his former position, provided such sickness does not exceed two months.

ARTICLE V.

It shall be at the option of each employé to board and lodge where and with whom he pleases.

ARTICLE VI.

The following shall be considered cogent reasons for the discharge of employés: 1, negligence in the performance of his duties; 2, dishonesty; 3, lack of respect toward his employers or foreman; 4, unavoidable circumstances which render a reduction of the employed forces necessary.

ARTICLE VII.

Ten hours shall constitute a week day's work. Sunday work shall not exceed three hours in breweries and five hours in malt houses; apportionment of time to be agreed upon between the proprietor or foreman and the men employed. In the lager beer department of the breweries ten consecutive hours, with the exception of meal time, shall constitute a week day's work.

ARTICLE VIII.

Minimum wages: Employés in wash-houses, fourteen ($14) dollars a week; employés in malt houses, brew, copper, and fermenting departments, sixteen ($16) dollars a week. Overtime to be paid at the rate of thirty cents an hour in breweries, and fifty cents an hour in malt houses.

ARTICLE IX.

All employés shall be allowed free beer in moderation while at work.

ARTICLE X.

Should any employé stop working, he shall be entitled to a certificate setting forth his ability and honesty.

ARTICLE XI.

Any amendments or alterations to these rules can only be made by consent of both contracting parties.

The following tables, which give the strikes in California for the six years ending in 1886, were collected by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, advanced sheets of which were forwarded to this bureau through the courtesy of Colonel Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner:

TABLE R.

I. Lockouts by Years and Industries, in California.

Industries and Years.	Locality.	Cause or Object.	Ordered by Organization	Establishments. No.	Establishments. Days Closed.	Beginning	End	Duration—Days	Succeeded	Employés— Loss.	Employés— Assistance.	Employers Loss
1884.												
Tobacco—												
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	18	14	March 3	Mar. 17	14	No.	$17,075	.....	$14,325
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	2	15	March 3	Mar. 18	15	No.	5,714	.....	4,300
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	1	.....	March 3	Mar. 18	15	No.	5,227	.....	1,200
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	2	16	March 3	Mar. 19	16	No.	3,713	.....	3,600
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	1	17	March 3	Mar. 20	17	No.	3,475	.....	1,250
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	1	20	March 3	Mar. 23	20	No.	765	.....	750
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Against demand for increase of wages	Yes	1	21	March 3	Mar. 24	21	Yes.	1,594	.....	1,250
Cigarmakers, etc.	San Francisco	Chinese cigarmakers refused to cut wrappers, and objected to employment of white labor*	Yes	1	14	July 8	July 22	14	No.	2,654	$560	800
1886.												
Miscellaneous—												
Employés, laundry	San Francisco	Against union men	Yes	1	.....	July 10	July 26	16	No.	1,120	.....	1,000

* White boys and girls who had been taught in the technical school established by cigar manufacturers.

TABLE 8.

II. Lockouts by Years and Industries, in California.

Industries and Years.	Number of Employés.						Average Daily Wages.				Employés Locked Out.			Employés Locked Out and Involved.			New Employés After Lock-out.			Brought from other places.	Weekly Working Hours.	
	Before Lockout.			After Lockout.			Before Lock-out.		After Lock-out.		Number	Daily Pay.									Before Lock-out.	After Lock-out.
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female		Before	After	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total			
1884.																						
Tobacco—																						
Cigarmakers, etc.	1,194	115	1,309	1,196	118	1,314	$1 11	$0 85	$1 14	$0 86	1,309	$1 09	$1 12	1,194	115	1,309	48	7	55	----	50	50
Cigarmakers, etc.	354	42	396	349	47	396	1 14	86	1 19	83	396	1 11	1 15	354	42	396	----	6	6	----	51	51
Cigarmakers, etc.	267	60	327	280	60	340	1 33	90	1 37	90	267	1 33	1 37	267	------	267	19	----	19	----	54	54
Cigarmakers, etc.	222	19	241	213	15	228	1 13	83	1 18	84	241	1 10	1 15	222	19	241	2	----	2	----	50	50
Cigarmakers, etc.	180	25	205	181	32	213	1 15	1 06	1 30	1 02	205	1 13	1 25	180	25	205	3	8	11	----	50	54
Cigarmakers, etc.	27	7	34	28	7	35	1 33	94	1 41	94	34	1 25	1 31	27	7	34	1	----	1	----	54	54
Cigarmakers, etc.	73	-----	73	73	------	73	1 04	------	1 03	------	73	1 04	1 03	73	------	73	----	----	----	----	54	54
Cigarmakers, etc.	143	61	204	134	63	197	1 18	86	1 31	86	201	1 08	1 16	140	61	201	7	5	12	----	57	57
1886.																						
Miscellaneous—																						
Employés, laundry	40	-----	40	40	------	40	2 00	------	2 00	------	40	2 00	2 00	40	------	40	40	----	40	----	72	72

TABLE T.

I. Strikes by Years and Industries, in California.

Number	Industries and Years.	Locality.	Cause or Object.	Ordered by Labor Organization.	Establishments. No.	Establishments. Days Closed.	Beginning.	End.	Duration—Days.	Succeeded.	Employés— Loss.	Employés— Assistance.	Employers Loss.
	1882.												
	Food preparations—												
24	Can sealers, fruit canning	San Francisco	Against fines	No.	1	.....	July 11	July 12	1	Yes.	$14	.....	.....
	Metals and metallic goods—												
25	Molders, etc., iron works	San Francisco	For additional helpers	No.	1	.....	Jan. 4	Jan. 7	3	Yes.	223	$85	$250
26	Molders, iron works	San Francisco	For equal pay for all molders	No.	1	.....	Dec. 15	Dec. 29	14	No.	630	.....	500
	1883.												
	Boots and shoes—												
27	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	June 1	June 22	21	Yes.	3,330	450	3,000
28	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	June 8	June 29	21	Yes.	1,100	140	675
29	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	June 20	June 27	7	Yes.	465	60	250
30	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	2	.....	June 28	July 26	28	Yes.	2,120	250	1,200
31	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	2	.....	July 22	Aug. 5	14	Yes.	1,212	175	600
32	Employés	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	July 25	Aug. 1	7	Yes.	264	144	150
	Cooperage—												
33	Coopers	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	6	.....	July 9	July 12	3	Yes.	316	.....	600
34	Coopers	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	4	3	July 9	July 12	3	Yes.	74	.....	150
35	Coopers	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	July 9	July 16	7	Yes.	50	30	80
36	Coopers	San Francisco	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	July 9	July 30	21	Yes.	693	378	275
	Domestic service—												
37	Waiters, restaurant	San Francisco	Against employment of colored waiters	No.	1	.....	July 12	July 22	10	No.	256	.....	100
	Metals and metallic goods—												
38	Employés, brass works	San Francisco	For increase of wages	No.	1	.....	July 8	Aug. 5	28	No.	2,240	225	300
	Printing and publishing—												
39	Compositors	San Francisco	Against employment of non-union men	Yes.	2	.....	July 31	Oct. 30	91	No.	2,967	1,320	4,300
	Public ways construction—												
40	Construction hands, railroad	Redding	For increase of wages	No.	1	21	July 2	July 23	21	No.	55,300	.....	25,000
	Telegraphy—												
41	(Strike of July 19, see New York.)												
	Transportation—												
42	Deckhands, steamship	Stockton	For increase of wages	No.	3	.....	June 7	June 8	1	No.	32	.....	.....
43	Longshoremen	San Francisco	For increase of wages	No.	1	.....	Aug. 16	Aug. 17	1	No.	155	.....	.....

TABLE T—Continued.

Number	Industries and Years.	Locality.	Cause or Object.	Ordered by Labor Organization.	Establishments. No.	Establishments. Days Closed.	Beginning.	End.	Duration—Days.	Succeeded.	Employés— Loss.	Employés— Assistance.	Employers Loss.
44	Coal passers and firemen, steamship	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	No.	1	.....	Aug. 27	Aug. 28	1	Yes.	$34	.....	.....
	1884.												
	Agricultural implements—												
45	Molders	San Francisco.	Against employment of additional apprentices.	Yes.	1	.....	May 28	June 18	21	Yes.	630	$300	$350
	Building trades—												
46	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	10	.....	May 5	May 6	1	Yes.	279	.....	1,275
47	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	8	.....	May 5	May 7	2	Yes.	384	.....	950
48	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	7	.....	May 5	May 8	3	Yes.	453	.....	925
49	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	2	.....	May 5	May 9	4	Yes.	156	.....	275
50	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	5	.....	May 5	May 12	7	Yes.	594	.....	1,100
51	Painters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	May 5	May 19	14	Yes.	324	.....	200
	Clothing—												
52	Tailors	San Francisco.	Against employment of two additional helpers.	Yes.	1	.....	May 29	July 17	49	Yes.	1,911	910	100
	Metals and metallic goods—												
53	Nailers, nail works	Oakland	Against reduction of wages	Yes.	1	91	Jan. 1	Apr. 1	91	No.	56,189	14,350	75,000
54	Blacksmiths, etc., iron works.	San Francisco.	Against employment of non-union men	No.	1	.....	Jan. 11	Feb. 8	28	No.	1,716	780	.....
55	Molders, iron works	San Francisco.	Against employment of additional apprentices.	Yes.	1	.....	Apr. 25	Apr. 28	3	Yes.	90	40	35
56	Molders, stove foundry	San Francisco.	Against employment of non-union men	Yes.	1	.....	May 21	July 20	60	No.	2,432	960	1,500
	Tobacco—												
57	Cigarmakers	San Francisco.	For increase of wages and against obnoxious rules	Yes.	1	21	Mar. 3	Mar. 24	21	Yes.	3,600	.....	.....
	Transportation—												
58	Officers and crew, steamship.	San Francisco.	Against reduction of wages	No.	3	1	Aug. 30	Aug. 31	1	Yes.	(a)	.....	353
	1885.												
	Metals and metallic goods—												
59	Employés, iron works	San Francisco.	Against reduction of wages	Yes.	6	10	Feb. 9	Feb. 19	10	Yes.	27,891	1,550	6,950
	1886.												
	Boots and shoes—												
60	Cutters	San Francisco.	For increase of wages	Yes.	1	.....	Aug. 23	Sept. 23	31	Yes.	900	.....	.....

	Domestic service—												
61	Cooks and waiters, steamship	San Francisco.	For increase of force, etc..	Yes.	1	------	Feb. ----	Feb. ----	6	No.	162	-------	-------
62	Cooks, waiters, etc., rest'ant.	San Francisco.	Against obnoxious rules.	Yes.	9	1	June 15..	June 16..	1	No.	449	-------	4,400
	Food preparations—												
63	Bakers	San Francisco.	Against importation of foreign labor	No.	1	4	Oct. 7..	Oct. 13..	6	Yes.	1,380	-------	1,000
	1886.												
	Machines and machinery—												
64	Boilermakers	San Francisco.	Against employment of non-union men	Yes.	1	------	June 19..	Sept. 19..	92	No.	47,800	2 7,100	-------
65	Boilermakers	San Francisco.	In sympathy with strike elsewhere	Yes.	1	------	July 13..	Aug. 12..	30	No.	11,700	-------	-------
	Metals and metallic goods—												
66	Nailers, nail works	Oakland	Against reduction of wages	Yes.	1	17	Jan. 1..	Jan. 18..	17	No.	7,680	-------	2,250
67	Nailers, nail works	Oakland	Against feeding their own machines.....	No.	1	------	Aug. 22..	Sept. 6..	15	Yes.	1,000	-------	-------
	Shipbuilding, etc.—												
68	Machinists, boilermakers, etc., iron shipbuilding works	San Francisco.	Against employment of non-union men	Yes.	1	------	May 26..	Sept. 6..	102	P'rtly	48,000	8,300	62,000
	Telegraphy—												
69	Messengers.....	San Francisco.	For fixed salary.....	No.	2	6	Dec. 16..	Dec. 22..	6	Yes.	750	-------	-------
	Transportation—												
70	Deckhands, etc., steamship..	San Francisco.	For additional help to firemen	Yes.	1	------	July 14..	July 22..	8	No.	1,900	-------	-------
71	Drivers and conductors, street railway	San Francisco.	For right to belong to labor organizations....	Yes.	3	------	July 15..	July 19..	4	Yes.	1,784	-------	5,000
								1887.					
72	Conductors, etc., cable railway	San Francisco.	For reduction of hours and increase of wages.	Yes.	1	3	Dec. 8..	May 1..	144	No.	20,000	8,000	60,000
73	Conductors, etc., cable railway	San Francisco.	For reduction of hours and increase of wages.	Yes.	1	3	Dec. 12..	Apr. 13..	122	No.	13,000	5,000	50,000

(a) Pay was not deducted for day lost.

TABLE U.

II. Strikes by Years and Industries, in California.

Number	Industries and Years.	Number of Employés.						Average Daily Wages.			
		Before Strike.			After Strike.			Before Strike.		After Strike.	
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	1882.										
	Food preparations—										
24	Can sealers, fruit canning	53	198	251	53	198	251	$1 75	$0 83	$1 75	$0 83
	Metals and metallic goods—										
25	Molders, etc., iron works	225	.....	225	235	.....	235	2 57	.....	2 54	.....
26	Molders, iron works	118	.....	118	120	.....	120	2 71	.....	2 69	.....
	1883.										
	Boots and shoes—										
27	Employés	194	.....	194	203	.....	203	1 25	.....	1 50	.....
28	Employés	73	.....	73	69	.....	69	1 30	.....	1 55	.....
29	Employés	81	.....	81	84	.....	84	1 21	.....	1 46	.....
30	Employés	107	.....	107	101	.....	101	1 16	.....	1 41	.....
31	Employés	119	.....	119	122	.....	122	1 22	.....	1 48	.....
32	Employés	57	.....	57	56	.....	56	1 22	.....	1 47	.....
	Cooperage—										
33	Coopers	57	.....	57	58	.....	58	2 75	.....	3 00	.....
34	Coopers	19	.....	19	20	.....	20	2 75	.....	3 00	.....
35	Coopers	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	2 75	.....	3 00	.....
36	Coopers	23	.....	23	27	.....	27	2 65	.....	2 90	.....
	Domestic service—										
37	Waiters, restaurant	47	.....	47	48	1	49	1 70	.....	1 72	1 00
	Metals and metallic goods—										
38	Employés, brass works	61	.....	61	48	9	57	1 53	.....	1 50	75
	Printing and publishing—										
39	Compositors	280	4	284	277	8	285	3 43	.....	3 43	.....
	Public ways construction—										
40	Construction hands, railroad	3,022	.....	3,022	3,034	.....	3,034	1 06	.....	1 05	.....
	Telegraphy—										
41	(Strike of July 19, see New York.)										

	1883.										
	Transportation—										
42	Deckhands, steamship	68	1	69	68	1	69	1 84	1 17	1 84	1 17
43	Longshoremen	103		103	114		114	1 50		1 50	
44	Coal passers and firemen, steamship	73	1	74	81	1	82	2 12	1 20	1 84	83
	1884.										
	Agricultural implements—										
45	Molders	66		66	68		68	2 30		2 15	
	Building trades—										
46	Painters	103		103	102		102	3 00		3 50	
47	Painters	72		72	70		70	3 00		3 50	
48	Painters	57		57	51		51	3 00		3 50	
49	Painters	13		13	11		11	3 00		3 50	
50	Painters	36		36	51		51	3 00		3 50	
51	Painters	13		13	12		12	3 00		3 50	
	Clothing—										
52	Tailors	20	2	22	20		20	3 50	2 00	3 50	
	Metals and metallic goods—										
53	Nails, nail works	296		296	273		273	2 51		2 67	
54	Blacksmiths, etc., iron works	386		386	386		386	2 27		2 27	
55	Molders, iron works	70		70	68		68	2 25		2 24	
56	Molders, stove foundry	31		31	21		21	2 50		2 46	
	Tobacco—										
57	Cigarmakers	150		150	150		150	1 33		1 40	
	Transportation—										
58	Officers and crew, steamship	219	3	222	219	3	222	1 60	83	1 60	83
	1885.										
	Metals and metallic goods—										
59	Employés, iron works	1,182		1,182	1,126		1,126	2 35		2 35	
	1886.										
	Boots and shoes—										
60	Cutters	190	50	240	189	50	239	2 16	1 47	2 18	1 47
	Domestic service—										
61	Cooks, waiters, steamship	27		27	35		35	*1 00		*1 00	
62	Cooks, waiters, etc., restaurant	254	2	256	254	2	256	1 76	1 00	1 76	1 00
	Food preparations—										
63	Bakers	80	20	100	80	20	100	2 50	1 50	2 50	1 50
	Machines and machinery—										
64	Boilermakers	400		400	300		300	3 08		3 08	
65	Boilermakers	500		500	500		500	3 00		3 00	

* And board.

TABLE U—Continued.

Number	Industries and Years.	Number of Employés.						Average Daily Wages.			
		Before Strike.			After Strike.			Before Strike.		After Strike.	
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	Metals and metallic goods—										
66	Nailers, nail works	174	.....	174	174	.....	174	$3 18	.....	$3 05	.....
67	Nailers, nail works	26	.....	26	26	.....	26	6 00	.....	6 00	.....
	Shipbuilding, etc.—										
68	Machinists, boilermakers, etc., iron shipbuilding works	582	.....	582	567	.....	567	2 67	.....	2 67	.....
	Telegraphy—										
69	Messengers	250	.....	250	250	.....	250	75	.....	90	.....
	Transportation—										
70	Deckhands, etc., steamship	200	.....	200	200	.....	200	*1 23	.....	*1 23	.....
71	Drivers and conductors, street railway	230	.....	230	230	.....	230	2 00	.....	2 00	.....
72	Conductors, etc., cable railway	160	.....	160	150	.....	150	2 00	.....	2 00	.....
73	Conductors, etc., cable railway	125	.....	125	125	.....	125	2 00	.....	2 00	.....

*And board.

TABLE U—Continued.

Number.	Industries and Years.	Employés Striking.			Employés Striking and Involved.			New Employés After Strike.			Brought from Other Places.	Weekly Working Hours.	
		Number.	Daily Pay.										
			Before.	After.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Before Strike.	After. Strike.
	1882.												
	Food preparations—												
24	Can sealers, fruit canning	6	$2 25	$2 25	6		6					60	60
	Metals and metallic goods—												
25	Molders, etc., iron works	18	3 50	3 50	24		24	10		10	2	60	60
26	Molders, iron works	14	3 75	3 62	14		14	10		10		60	60
	Boots and shoes— 1883.												
27	Employés	148	1 25	1 50	148		148	12		12		60	60
28	Employés	47	1 30	1 55	47		47	4		4		60	60
29	Employés	64	1 21	1 46	64		64	7		7		60	60
30	Employés	76	1 16	1 41	76		76	6		6		60	60
31	Employés	83	1 22	1 47	83		83	15		15		60	60
32	Employés	36	1 22	1 47	36		36					60	60
	Cooperage—												
33	Coopers	46	2 75	3 00	47		47	2		2		60	60
34	Coopers	19	2 75	3 00	19		19	1		1		60	60
35	Coopers	3	2 75	3 00	3		3					60	60
36	Coopers	14	2 75	3 00	14		14	12		12	3	60	60
	Domestic service—												
37	Waiters, restaurant	16	1 60	1 60	16		16	6	1	7		98	98
	Metals and metallic goods—												
38	Employés, brass works	61	1 53	1 50	61		61	2	9	11		59	59
	Printing and publishing—												
39	Compositors	50			55		55	34	4	38	11	60	60
	Public ways construction—												
40	Construction hands, railroad	2,680	1 00	1 00	3,022		3,022	118		118		60	60
	Telegraphy—												
41	(Strike of July 19, see New York.)												
	Transportation—												
42	Deckhands, steamship	24	1 33	1 33	24		24	24		24		67	67
43	Longshoremen	103	1 50	1 50	103		103	114		114		30	30
44	Coal passers and firemen, steamship	18	1 90		18		18	27		27		54	54

TABLE U—Continued.

Number.	Industries and Years.	Employés Striking.			Employés Striking and Involved.			New Employés After Strike.			Brought from Other Places.	Weekly Working Hours.	
		Number.	Daily Pay.										
			Before.	After.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Before Strike.	After Strike.
	1884.												
	Agricultural implements—												
45	Molders	10	$3 50	$3 50	10		10	2		2		60	60
	Building trades—												
46	Painters	87	3 00	3 50	95		95	12		12		54	54
47	Painters	55	3 00	3 50	64		64	10		10		54	54
48	Painters	39	3 00	3 50	48		48	10		10		54	54
49	Painters	8	3 00	3 50	13		13	1		1		54	54
50	Painters	33	3 00	3 50	33		33	27		27		54	54
51	Painters	9	3 00	3 50	9		9	2		2		54	54
	Clothing—												
52	Tailors	13	3 50	3 50	13		13	7		7		60	60
	Metals and metallic goods—												
53	Nailers, nail works	26	8 75		287		287	97		97	73	55	55
54	Blacksmiths, etc., iron works	7	3 25		26		26	26		26	7	60	60
55	Molders, iron works	8	3 75	3 75	8		8	3		3	1	60	60
56	Molders, stove foundry	12	3 50		19		19	9		9	3	60	60
	Tobacco—												
57	Cigarmakers	150	1 33	1 40	150		150					60	60
	Transportation—												
58	Officers and crew, steamship	222	1 59	1 59	219	3	222					60	60
	1885.												
	Metals and metallic goods—												
59	Employés, iron works	1,182	2 35	2 35	1,182		1,182	63		63		60	60
	1886.												
	Boots and shoes—												
60	Cutters	15	2 53	2 73	15		15					59	59
	Domestic service—												
61	Cooks and waiters, steamship	27	*1 00	*1 00	27		27	35		35		112	112
62	Cooks, waiters, etc., restaurant	250	1 76	1 76	254	2	256					98	77
	Food preparations—												
63	Bakers	98	2 30	2 30	80	20	100					60	60

	Machines and machinery—												
64	Boilermakers	46	3 25	3 25	217	.....	217	50	.....	50	.....	60	60
65	Boilermakers	150	3 00	3 00	150	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	60	60
	Metals and metallic goods—												
66	Nailers, nail works	26	8 75	7 68	161	.....	161	.....	.....	.....	.....	55	55
67	Nailers, nail works	14	6 00	6 00	14	.....	14	.....	.....	.....	.....	60	60
	Shipbuilding, etc.—												
68	Machinists, boilermakers, etc., iron shipbuilding works	48	3 25	3 25	246	.....	246	124	.....	124	.....	60	60
	Telegraphy—												
69	Messengers	185	75	90	250	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	72	72
	Transportation—												
70	Deckhands, etc., steamship	9	*1 67	.....	200	.....	200	200	.....	200	.....	98	98
71	Drivers and conductors, street railway	223	2 00	2 00	223	.....	223	.....	.....	.....	.....	84	84
72	Conductors, etc., cable railway	160	2 00	.....	160	.....	160	150	.....	150	.....	98	98
73	Conductors, etc., cable railway	125	2 00	.....	125	.....	125	125	.....	125	.....	98	98

*And board.

TABLE V.

All Industries for all Years, in California.

Industry.	Ordered by Organization.		Establishments.				Duration. (Days.)		Results.			Employés—		Employers Loss
	Yes	No	Number	No. Closed	Aggregate Days Closed	Average Days Closed	Aggregate	Average	Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed	Loss	Assistance	
Agricultural implements	1		1				21	21.0	1			$630	$300	$350
Boots and shoes	9		9				171	19.0	9			9,391	1,219	5,875
Building trades	33		33				104	3.2	33			2,190		4,725
Clothing	1		1				49	49.0	1			1,911	910	100
Cooperage	12		12	4	12	3.0	58	4.8	12			1,133	408	1,105
Domestic service	10	1	11	9	9	1.0	25	2.3			11	867		4,500
Food preparations		2	2	1	4	4.0	7	3.5	2			1,394		1,000
Machines and machinery	2		2				122	61.0			2	59,500	27,100	
Metals and metallic goods	10	5	15	8	168	21.0	319	21.3	9		6	100,091	17,990	86,785
Printing and publishing	2		2				182	91.0			2	2,967	1,320	4,300
Public ways, construction		1	1	1	21	21.0	21	21.0			1	55,300		25,000
Shipbuilding, etc.	1		1				102	102.0		1		48,000	8,300	62,000
Telegraphy*		2	2	2	12	6.0	12	6.0	2			750		
Tobacco	1		1	1	21	21.0	21	21.0	1			3,600		
Transportation	6	8	14	5	9	1.8	294	21.0	7		7	36,905	13,000	115,353
Totals	88	19	107	31	256	8.3	1,508	14.1	77	1	29	$324,629	$70,547	$311,093

* For general strike of July 19, 1883, see New York.

TABLE V—Continued.

Industry.	Number of Employés.						Employés Striking.	Employés Striking and Involved.			New Employés After Strike.			Brought from other Places.
	Before Strike.			After Strike.										
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Agricultural implements	66	------	66	68	------	68	10	10	------	10	2	------	2	------
Boots and shoes	821	50	871	824	50	874	469	469	------	469	44	------	44	------
Building trades	294	------	294	297	------	297	231	262	------	262	62	------	62	------
Clothing	20	2	22	20	------	20	13	13	------	13	7	------	7	------
Cooperage	103	------	103	109	------	109	82	83	------	83	15	------	15	3
Domestic service	328	2	330	337	3	340	293	297	2	299	41	1	42	------
Food preparations	133	218	351	133	218	351	104	86	20	106	------	------	------	------
Machines and machinery	900	------	900	800	------	800	196	367	------	367	50	------	50	------
Metals and metallic goods	2,569	------	2,569	2,477	9	2,486	1,368	1,796	------	1,796	220	9	229	86
Printing and publishing	280	4	284	277	8	285	50	55	------	55	34	4	38	11
Public ways, construction	3,022	------	3,022	3,034	------	3,034	2,680	3,022	------	3,022	118	------	118	------
Shipbuilding, etc.	582	------	582	567	------	567	48	246	------	246	124	------	124	------
Telegraphy*	250	------	250	250	------	250	185	250	------	250	------	------	------	------
Tobacco	150	------	150	150	------	150	150	150	------	150	------	------	------	------
Transportation	1,178	5	1,183	1,187	5	1,192	884	1,072	3	1,075	640	------	640	------
Totals	10,696	281	10,977	10,530	293	10,823	6,763	8,178	25	8,203	1,357	14	1,371	100

* For general strike of July 19, 1883, see New York.

CHAPTER IV.

CHINESE UNIONS AND STRIKES.

The extreme secrecy with which all Chinese organizations are enshrouded, rendered it a task of exceeding difficulty for the bureau to obtain any information concerning them. Some few facts, however, not wholly uninteresting, were brought to light, which, coupled with facts of a similar character taken from Consular reports, show with what similarity the Chinese guilds and organizations are conducted as compared with the most approved American system.

Every city in China has guilds controlling arbitrarily every industry and branch of business. Boycotting is carried on to a sometimes oppressive limit. The large cities of China are ruled entirely by Trades Unions, the membership of which is compulsory under the threat of torture or sometimes death. They regulate the hours of labor, apprenticeship, strikes, and wages. Blacksmiths, carpenters, wiredrawers, silk weavers, millers, postal companies, barbers, etc., are banded together into a federation for mutual aid and protection. Some unions are particularly famous for their truculency, and very few cases are reported where a member is guilty of a breach of the rules, or is found uninterested in the proceedings of a meeting, for fear of the administration of the law, which is extremely and ridiculously cruel, as the following case will undoubtedly show: At Soochow, one of the gold leaf craft was adjudged guilty of violating the rule of the union forbidding the taking of more than one apprentice at a time. He was summoned before *their tribunal*, found guilty of his great crime, and punished by the cannibalistic process of being eaten to death by one hundred and twenty-three men, each taking a choice morsel and repeating the operation with crimsoned lips, until the culprit expired amid the savage yells of these imps of hell's contagion. Such treatment surprises and disgusts people of a civilized community, while the Chinese see the imperative necessity of rigidly enforcing union rules.

Strikes are a rarity, but when one does occur, their demand is acceded to without question or hesitancy. The introduction of labor-saving machinery into Canton encountered such violent opposition from the unions, that the authorities were in consequence compelled to remove it to Hongkong. Machinery for sewing shoes especially, fired their hearts to such a heat, that a general uprising was apparent. The unions formed themselves into a federation with the intention of prohibiting, by all means, the use or invasion of this enemy to honest labor. It is remarkably strange, but nevertheless asserted as true, that coöperative clubs are more common in China than in America. It is stated by some writers and authority on Chinese unions that they are an exceptionally mild people, and no "population are so docile, so law abiding, as that of Soochow, the Athens of China, when their blood is *not* up." Ordinarily mild measures are resorted to as a preliminary movement to subjugate and bring the offending member to terms, "and rarely," says the authority, "do such measures fail of success." The western mechanics are the most truculent, and resort to treatments far more cruel and barbarous than the one cited above.

CHINESE FISHMONGERS UNION

Is the most wealthy organization in China. It has a reserve fund of $700,000 let out at interest, invested in bank stock, thus rapidly enriching

itself yearly. This union is very peaceable, holding that good faith between the merchant and purchaser is of paramount importance to further the objects of organization, as is shown in the following:

PREAMBLE.—We have heard that in trade and mercantile transactions generally, sincerity and good faith are of prime importance, in order that neither seller nor purchaser should incur loss. We have long been engaged in fishmongering, and the rules originally formed having become partially obsolete, we now remodel them to meet the changes, hoping that, both dealer and purchaser being upright, these regulations will ever after be conformed to.

The unions of the mechanics are usually composed of the masters and journeymen. Where the journeymen are very numerous they have their own organization, but such instances are exceedingly rare.

CHINESE BLACKSMITHS UNION

Is composed of master and workmen, who work harmoniously together, and very often convene for the purpose of regulating the prices of manufacturing. Very recently they called a meeting at Pelladium Temple, and agreed (during a theatrical entertainment, etc.) on a new tariff of wages and prices for the manufactured wares. At all times, such means are readily conformed to by the manufacturers, very few cases being on record where the wage earners have not been triumphant. It may be supposed that such dictatorial proceedings on the part of the union would have a tendency to despotism, laying the manufacturer open to the optional demands of the union. Such, however, is far from being the case, as the merchant or manufacturer has the protection of the magistrate or the Emperor. They form their own combinations to keep up prices and neutralize the tendency of unrestrictive competition. They fix a uniform value on the products of manual labor, while the combination of the laborers checks the sordidity of the manufacturer in regulating a minimum of wages.

CHINESE MILLERS UNION.

The Chinese Millers Union has in a preamble seen fit to regulate more strictly, for the better governing of the craft, a uniform standard of combination prices and wages; thus restricting the ravages of competition and bettering the condition of the wage earners. An infraction of this rule lays the culprit subject to the cost of a play and feast—the usual penalty.

GENERAL REMARKS ON CHINESE TRADES UNIONS.

Hours of Labor.—The union men have the hours of labor regulated and are not allowed to work beyond the specified time. They are paid by the amount of labor performed; weaving is not allowed after nine o'clock at night. Custom regulates the hours of work of those who are working by the day. Carpenters work eleven hours in summer, while but nine hours in winter; masons work half an hour longer.

The laboring classes of the lowest order toil incessantly throughout the whole year, Sunday being no day of rest for them. Perhaps at the end of the year they may get a few days rest, but that is all; still this class is surprisingly the most happy and contented of all wage earners; never raising riots, or insurrection, striking, or asking for shorter hours or more pay.

Apprentices.—The majority of the unions have very imperative and

severe apprentice laws. The gold beaters at Wenchow prohibit any from learning the trade but the sons and nephews of the workmen or masters. The western unions strictly debar and prohibit women of any class to work at occupations where men are employed. Perhaps this is to teach the women to cultivate the domestic duties, leaving the manual labor for the men. Needle-makers make an exception in favor of allowing the daughters and wives of members of the craft to acquire the art of "drilling eyes." None are allowed to marry outside of the union. Apprenticeship varies according to the trade; from three to five years being the established time. Food and lodging are provided by the employer, while clothes and a premium can be demanded, and usually are furnished by the parents. A person who learns the trade, must have his credentials as having served his full term when applying for work, or else no one is allowed to employ him. The penalty of a breach or violation of the agreement entered into, is to pay the expenses of a play, three tables of viands, and liquor. So rigidly are the rules enforced, however, that an infraction is a rare thing. Honor is a common thing among the different Chinese Trades Unions. Restrictions are placed upon the members, and fines imposed for making an article inferior to what the craft allows. The quality and price of articles are regulated. Dealers who put defective wares upon the market are considered as guilty as those who dispose of them at reduced rates. No alloy is allowed in tin or other ware, it must be the "Simon pure" article; thus the Chinese prove themselves superior, although pseudo-civilized, to most of our manufacturers, who are noted for the very opposite kind of public beneficent spirit.

The Chinese Dyers Trade Union, in their preamble, declare that "business requires for its proper administration that there should be equitable rules and good faith in their observance, and that, owing to the fluctuation of the price in indigo, it is to the interest of all concerned that charges of dyeing should be fixed twice a year; that during the semestral period the tariff should undergo no change whatever." It is also provided by that craft that accounts shall be settled at each of the three periods into which the year is divided; which means that not only master dyers shall owe no money, but that all moneys due him shall be collected—long accounts being inimical to the common interests of the craft.

CHINESE STRIKES.

The Chinese Trades Unions, or "Tongs," as they are called, in San Francisco are very rarely heard of, but nevertheless exist and are very powerful. In case of a strike or boycott they are fierce and determined in action, making a bitter and prolonged fight.

Only a short time ago the Chinese carpenters and bricklayers struck for higher wages. The carpenters had been receiving $2 50 per day of ten hours, and struck for an advance of 50 cents for the same time. When a house is built in Chinatown, as soon as the walls and roof are completed by white labor, the building is turned over to Chinese carpenters, who construct the partitions, doors, bunks, and other interior work. Large, massive doors, made of beaten brass, some measuring a foot in thickness, are constructed to act as barricades against the numerous charges of the police. Gold beaters, jewelers, bakers, shoemakers, and cigarmakers have their "Tongs."

A white manufacturer of overalls, who employs members of the Kan Yee Tong, once succeeded in getting his men to work for 10 cents a dozen less than the union rate, on his agreeing to keep a false set of books, showing

an ostensible payment of regular rates. The scheme was a failure, the merchant was boycotted and blacklisted, while the renegade members of the Kan Yee Tong were fined and expelled. The "Hang Tong" (gold and silverworkers) have a very powerful union and more exclusive than any other. An initiation fee of $10 must be paid, while the applicant must have served six years at the trade. The Chinese average about $525 a year, the hours of labor ranging very peculiarly, 10 A. M. to 12 M., 12:30 to 4:30 P. M., from 5 to 6 P. M., and again from 8 until 11 P. M. The intermissions at 12:30 and 4:30 are for lunch and dinner. Breakfast is eaten at 9 o'clock, thus bringing all the meals close together, according to the most approved American idea.

COST OF CHINESE LIVING.

The cost of living for a Chinaman is marvelously low. But considering the manner in which they live, sleeping in bunks, thirty or forty of whom are in a room twelve by twelve and arranged in tiers three or four feet high. A Chinaman's trousers and blouse cost $1 50; shoes, $1 40. His outlay for clothing may not exceed $5 in a whole year; his lodging, $5 per year; while he earns in the average, 90 cents to $1 50 per day, according to his work.

Lodging per day, ½ cent; per year	$1 82
Food per day, 20 cents; per year	73 00
Clothing per year	5 00
Two queues, at 75 cents	1 50
Shaving head two times a month	3 60
Yearly cost of living	$84 92

Total earnings	$320 00
Cost of living	84 92
Yearly earnings	$230 08

The Tung Tuck Tong, or the Chinese Cigarmakers Union, some time ago issued a very characteristic circular to white cigar manufacturers employing "scab" hands. The Chinese union had struck for an increase of 5 cents per hundred cigars, and at the same time demanded the privilege of boarding where they pleased. The white manufacturers were in league with Chinese boarding-house masters, who paid 50 cents per head per week for every Chinaman sent to his house to board. In a manufactory where three hundred or four hundred Chinese work, it made quite a consideration for the manufacturer. Such employés were as virtually under the control of their master as poor Jack is under the control, and owned body and soul, by boarding-house masters along the waterfront. It was, therefore, to better their condition financially and socially that the following circulars were sent to the manufacturers:

To the reader, No. 29 Sacramento Street:

We, Tung Tuck Tong, wish to find out some way, or rather to have Mr. —— cigar packers discharged, because they violates our company's rules. If he, Mr. ——, discharge No. 1 and No. 5, cigar packers, we, Tung Tuck Tong, will furnish him with two good hands, and guarantee they will surely satisfy him. They will not work for any cheaper or any dearer.

Another circular, of no less interest, is the following:

To the reader:

We, Tung Tuck Tong, the Chinese Cigarmakers Protective Union, wish to find out some way, or rather to have Mr. —— cigarmakers turned off or discharged, because they violates our company's rules. If Mr. —— discharges them, we, Tung Tuck Tong, will furnish him all the hands he wants, and also guarantee they are good workingmen. They would not work any cheaper or dearer.

CHAPTER V.

REMARKS AND SUGGESTIONS FROM TRADES UNIONS AND FROM WORKINGMEN.

Suggestions from the Trades Unions.

Carpenters, No. 182—"In order to furnish work for the increased population we suggest the institution of the eight-hour movement."

Carpenters, No. 47—"The best thing I know of is for the members to attend the meetings regularly, and take an interest in the work of the Order. Under such conditions any organization is bound to succeed."

Carpenters, No. 133—"Stop importing carpenters, as there are too many on the Pacific Coast. A refusal to work with 'scabs' or 'rats,' as we term them."

Carpenters, No. 114—"Eight hours for a day's work. Honest legislation."

Carpenters, No. 56—"Make the eight-hour law compulsory on all employers. Make the wages of any laborer over twenty-one years of age $2 per day of eight hours. Make apprentice laws for all skilled trades. Make all improvements on the land free of taxation. Amend mechanic's lien law to give laborers priority of claim over material men, and full amount of wages due. Make weekly payment of wages in cash compulsory."

Carpenters, No. 300—"To employ none but competent workmen and apprentices."

Carpenters, No. ———"Remove the tariff on lumber. Legislate compelling the railroads to receive and deliver all classes of freight as it is received, to the full extent of their power. Establish agencies throughout the different parts of the States, empowered to act subject to appeal under the Interstate Commerce Law. Make the nine hours obligatory to all members. Prohibit all good union workmen from working as partners, or mixed on a job with the 'saw and hatchet' brigade. Fix a minimum standard rate of wages and standard hours of labor. Give a greater circulation and distribution of trades union and labor papers."

Carpenters, No. 303—"Less time and more money, and ask Government to pay all contractors and make contractors pay every week all they owe the men."

Carpenters, No. 298—"A more close amalgamation of all the labor organizations would improve the cause."

Carpenters, No. 312—"I would suggest that nine hours ought to constitute a day's work, and that carpenters should be graded so that a first class man would not have to work for the same that a 'saw and hatchet' man does."

Carpenters, No. 36—"A strict apprentice law whereby apprentices would be obliged to serve an apprenticeship of at least four years."

Carpenters, No. 316—"To shorten the hours of labor for every man who has to work for a living."

Carpenters, No. 22—"We think that the enforcement of the eight hour law, with a heavy penalty for the violation of the same, would greatly improve the condition of the craft in the State. We are strongly opposed to the State and municipal work being contracted out to local firms and corporations."

Cigarmakers (Los Angeles)—"Entire exclusion of the Chinese; not to repeal the internal revenue, or the existing tariff on imported cigars; the prohibition of children under twelve years to work in the factories; to abolish the tenement house system in New York, but thoroughly organiz-

ing all cheap districts in the East, and the strict enforcement of revenue laws."

Bricklayers (Sacramento)—"Drink less liquor."

Painters and Decorators (San José)—"A liberal education and an ordinary amount of mother wit."

Typographical Union (Los Angeles)—"Coöperation and unity."

Typographical Union (Sacramento)—"With unexcelled facilities for the production of work in this city, our craft could be benefited by our merchants dealing with Sacramento printing offices, and not sending so much of their printing to other cities, and particularly those merchants who depend on the working classes for their maintenance in business. We also favor a State apprentice law."

Typographical Union (San José)—"A visit occasionally from good speakers at the meeting, to arouse them to a little agitation; a State apprentice law."

Cigarmakers (San José)—"Prohibit Chinese immigration. Legislature should enact laws prohibiting the employment of children under fourteen years of age to work in factories. Enforcement of sanitary laws in factories. Prohibit the importation of labor under the contract system. Stop the competition of prison labor with free labor."

Bricklayers (Los Angeles)—"Eight hours a day would benefit our craft very much. It would give employment to a great number of bricklayers that are now idle."

Tailors (San Francisco)—"That the employers furnish healthy workrooms, or shops, sewing machines, machine silk, stove, iron, and coal."

Carpet Upholsterers (San Francisco)—"Some young boys and men who never sewed any, apprentice themselves into a store and try to work for one half the regular rates, for which we would like a remedy. This has a tendency to lower wages."

Cigar Packers (San Francisco)—"Drive out the Chinese. Like the vampire, they are sucking the life-blood out of our people."

Pavers (San Francisco)—"Enforce the eight-hour law."

Patternmakers (San Francisco)—"In our opinion it is necessary for the bureau to visit all shops to compel employers to make necessary improvements for the safety, comfort, and well being of their employés. See to the sanitary condition, unprotected belts of machinery, elevated traps, stairways, etc."

Coremakers (San Francisco)—"To improve the craft, there is need of a law to limit the number of apprentices. Some shops employ more boys than men. I mean a law of our own which we could enforce, similar to the iron-molder apprentice law."

Ironmolders (San Francisco)—"I would suggest that other crafts organize as the ironmolders are, and then strike, if necessary. It is foolish to strike when the non-union men outnumber the union men. I am in favor of all strikes, for my experience has taught me that it is the only means of getting what belongs to all mankind, *i. e.*, the right to live and bring up a family, thereby having a comfortable home."

Machinists (San Francisco)—"A reduction of working from ten to nine hours per day. Weekly payment of wages instead of paying once and twice per month."

Laborers Union (San Francisco)—"Stop beer drinking."

Glassblowers (San Francisco)—"It would help our business if the importation of foreign demijohns could be stopped."

Glovers Union (San Francisco)—"Shorter hours and more pay. Uniform schedule of wages."

Stationary Engineers (San Francisco)—"A law compelling the inspection of steam boilers and examining and licensing the engineer in charge, solely for the purpose of better protection of life and property."

Marine Engineers (San Francisco)—"A hearty coöperation of all those of our fellows who are desirous of maintaining a strict integrity."

Dry Goods Men (San Francisco)—"A general closing of all stores at 6 P. M. during six days in the week, and remaining closed all day on the seventh."

Draymen and Teamsters (San Francisco)—"That men should be more temperate in their habits. Liquor has been a great curse to teamsters in general."

Candymakers (San Francisco)—"Eight hours per day and no Sunday work. Christmas times we work for three months, day, night, and Sundays."

Coopers (German)—"The abolition of the system of employment of apprentices through the journeymen workers. Better security of the workers against dangerous machinery, which claims many victims yearly. Mutilated hands and fingers are common occurrences in large cooper shops."

Coopers (English)—"Shorter hours and more pay."

Calkers Union (San Francisco)—"Are perfectly satisfied; nothing could improve the condition of the craft. Perfect harmony and contentment exists with all the members."

Bricklayers (San Francisco)—"Extension of the fire limits and the construction of more permanent buildings."

Bag and Satchel Makers (San Francisco)—"Have the members thoroughly organized; stand heart and hand with the by-laws and constitution; attend the meetings and then strike for one apprentice for every six journeymen, thus avoiding the inevitable consequences of apprentices starving the skilled laborer."

Barbers (San Francisco)—"Abolish all ten-cent shops. Have reasonable hours of labor; from 7:30 A. M. to 8 P. M. would be satisfactory. The barbers are sadly in need of organization, which is the only remedy for unrestricted competition among men of their own craft."

Boot and Shoe Makers (San Francisco)—"The adoption of a State stamp law, whereby the purchaser could distinguish between white and Chinese manufactured goods."

Remarks from Workingmen.

"Proportional representation. Swiss 'referendum.' Shorter hours, nine, eight, or seven hours per day. Abolition of the contract system. Total expulsion of the Chinese. Carry out the principles of the Knights of Labor."—Printer.

NOTE.—The "referendum" is the plan of submitting to the vote of the electors all laws, rules, etc., for ratification or rejection, after having been passed by the Legislature or Board. In Switzerland—the only country in which the referendum has yet been used for legislative purposes—all proposed laws must be submitted to the people on demand of thirty thousand voters, which is about one fifteenth of the constituency. This avoids the necessity of bringing before the people a large number of laws pertaining to the details of administration, it being assumed there cannot be any great opposition to any law when not a fifteenth of the constituency desire its submission.

In the management of the affairs of labor, coöperative, and other societies, it would seem that if four fifths of the managing body (the whole body having been elected by proportional representation) approve of a certain measure, the majority of the members would also approve of it. But as these may be scattered, perhaps the referendum should be used on demand of one tenth of the members, of one fifth of the Board of Directors, or other managing body. The principle could be extended affirmatively also, so that any measure proposed by one fifth of the Directors or by one tenth of the members should be

submitted to the vote of the whole membership, thus securing absolute democracy. This could be embodied in the constitution as follows:

1. On demand of one fifth of the members of the Board of Directors, or one tenth of the members of the ——, any constitutional provision, law, rule, or regulation, passed by said Board, must be submitted to all the members for ratification or rejection by a majority vote; and any constitutional provision, law, rule, or regulation rejected by said Board, or which no member of the Board will introduce therein, shall be similarly submitted for ratification or rejection by the members as a body. But any proposition, law, rule, or constitutional provision so submitted and rejected by a majority vote, shall not be resubmitted in less than six months from the date of said first submission.

"To have the State law enforced which makes eight hours a legal day's work; the enforcement of this law would offer opportunities to the painters to educate themselves."—Painter.

"I am a man connected with organized labor all my lifetime, and am under the impression that the only remedy is in the reduction of hours. The seven-day working system should be abolished; it would give all willing to work employment, which, however, cannot be done only through organization, as it seems our employers and the law will never enforce or remedy the same."—Baker.

"Enforce the law in regard to the importation of foreign labor by contract and the restrictions that are placed upon the Chinese; also abolish child labor."—Cigarmaker.

"Prevent men who have not served an apprenticeship from working and usurping trade by working under standard wages. To prevent employers from employing such, or if so employed, to pay them proper wages. To encourage tradesmen in organizing for mutual protection, social, moral, and intellectual improvement, and elevation of labor."—Painter.

"I see no reason why mechanics should labor a greater number of hours than the clerks in municipal and government offices, with no reduction of pay. At reduced hours, men, now idle, could be employed."—Patternmaker.

"I have been trying to solve the labor problem, but have not come to any definite conclusions as yet. With the exclusion of the Chinamen there would be room for at least two thousand more white men in our trade."—Cigarmaker.

"Establish by law the number of hours to be worked per day, without overtime, and half holiday on Saturday."—Painter.

"The coöperative system and general reduction of the hours of labor. The total abolishment of the seven-day work system; also laws that will enforce such. I would also recommend thorough investigation by the bureau into the baker trade as regards the cleanliness of the goods used by the public."—Baker.

"The coöperative system; decrease of the hours of work. Every wage worker should lay down his work at twelve o'clock Saturday noon, with a full week's payment. Better laws to keep away Chinese immigration."—Confectioner.

"Coöperative system and general reduction of the hours of labor. Also, laws that will enforce such."—Butcher.

"If we did not have to compete with the Chinese we could earn more individually, and have about three thousand men working here, instead of the paltry few at present."—Cigarmaker.

"Fire out the Chinese and it will bring to this coast about three thousand men in our line of the business."—Cigarmaker.

"Sobriety, I think, would greatly improve the condition of the wage earner."—Sailor.

"After thirty years' experience, I would suggest that all wage workers study economic principles. Do away with the middleman that stands

between the producer and the consumer. Quit drinking whisky. Shorten up the hours of labor until all persons are employed that should work. Remedy these evils and others in rotation, as they present themselves."—Harnessmaker.

"Compulsory education for all children under sixteen years of age. Abolish contract labor. Restriction of foreign immigration and Chinese. The appointment, by all States, of Labor Commissioners to investigate strikes, lockouts, etc."—Painter.

"Eight hours should constitute a legal day's work in all classes of employment. The abolition of the pernicious system of working people day, night, and Sundays."—Ironmolder.

"Have people avoid debt; leave rum, whisky, and beer alone; attend to the principles of organization and half the battle between capital and labor is won."—Machinist.

"Close all places of business on Sunday, and have uniform hours of work."—Clerk.

"Provide seats for those of us who are compelled to stand from the rising to the setting of the sun, and sometimes to the long hours of midnight."—Saleslady.

"Accept my congratulations for the good work you are doing in investigating the apprenticeship of sewing girls."—Sewing Woman.

"Persevere in your good work, as you have the sympathy and support of all workingwomen."—Mother.

"Ignorance, intemperance, and indifference are the three great obstacles in the way of labor improvement."—Carpenter.

"Coöperative principles and profit sharing should form the basis for labor improvement."—Laster.

"A good State apprentice law is necessary to protect our craft."—Compositor.

"Introduce arbitration and conciliation as the basis of settlement for all industrial disturbances. Strikes are a failure, and should be avoided."—Cook and Waiter.

"A State Arbitration Board is necessary. Strikes have had their day."—Waiter.

"Body and soul is hardly kept together by the pay we receive. Impositions are heaped upon us by the use of the apprentice dodge. Have a special committee appointed by the Legislature to investigate sewing, cloakmaking, and millinery establishments."—Sewing Woman.

"Investigate the cloak houses in San Francisco."—Cloak Saleslady.

"Abolish convict and also contract labor by the Government or State. All work should be done by the day, and payments should be made weekly."—Stonecutter.

"Have the hours of labor curtailed and provide a system of profit sharing."—Butcher.

"Make more mechanics, and use less machinery in production."—Machinist.

"Reduce the hours of labor, and pass a law prohibiting children under sixteen years of age from working in factories."—Bagmaker.

"If the manufacture and sale of liquors were stopped, it would materially benefit the wage classes."—Printer.

"Cash for every week in full. An apprentice law compelling employers to teach them the trade in full."—Tanner.

"Stop the employment of Chinese, and drive the curse out of our land."—Wool Sorter.

"Give each employé an interest in the business, so that he will be work-

ing for his own interest. It would materially obviate the present system where it is necessary for the employers to grind the employé."—Glovemaker.

"Have an apprentice law passed and prohibit the importation of alien labor. Foreign mechanics are driving our youth to the wall."—Coremaker.

"The want of confidence in one another is a fault which pervades all classes in the country. It is the main cause of labor troubles."—Pressman.

"The want of organization and the employment of half fledged workmen have reduced our fellow workers to almost starvation wages."—Carpet-layer.

"Investigate the condition of employment offices and look into the half interest swindlers."—Farmer.

"Men lie prone on their backs and expect the golden apple to fall into their mouths."—Rigger.

"American workmen are too greedy for quick fortunes and neglect intellectual culture."—Stairbuilder.

"Keep out the foreign element and give the American youth a chance." Piano Maker.

"We are in need of a good apprentice law, compelling the employer to teach a boy a trade and not use him for personal pecuniary benefit."—Silversmith.

"Equal pay for equal work. The females are underpaid, and consequently throw many of our men out of employment."—Compositor.

"The bureau should persist in its good work of bringing to light the apprentice and half interest swindles."—Printer.

"Establish industrial training schools and attach them to our common schools; have the students make a study of practical heights and practical measurements. I have lived in the country the greater part of my life and know that many men grow up ignorant. I am anxious to see the youth get thoroughly educated."—Carpenter.

"Enforce the eight-hour law. It would afford more time for education." —Carpenter.

"Labor should be entitled to a voice in fixing wages. The man who sells his labor should have a say for what he shall sell it for."—Wage Worker.

"Encourage skilled workmanship. It is a preventive of importation of foreign mechanics."—Workman.

"Teach the rising generation to respect, rather than to despise, manual labor. Our clerk market is overcrowded."—Mechanic.

"Equal laws for all classes."—Engraver.

"Equal pay would drive women out of competition."—Cigarmaker.

"The State should pass a law making fire escapes and protected elevators compulsory."—Factory Hand.

"The Chinese on the Pacific Coast should be supplanted by white labor cigar packers, which would naturally increase a demand for Pacific Coast cigars."—Cigar Packer.

"We would like to have an investigation, by the bureau, into the sleeping accommodations offered by the bosses; many of us have to work twelve to sixteen hours daily in cellars that are unfit for habitation."—Baker.

"We have too much classical education in our schools and colleges. Elevate the technical and depress a little the classical courses. Hundreds of graduates from law schools and colleges are unfit for any kind of employment. They are above manual training and are termed 'gentlemen.' Boys and girls need a thorough practical knowledge which would fit them for some higher station in life than clerks, bookkeepers, lawyers, doctors, etc. Ornamental and decorative art and improved architecture cannot be

acquired by a classical education. A manual and technical school is what is needed to do effective work."—Architect.

"The condition of our women in workshops is deplorable. What is needed is a Workingwomen's Protective Union, such as is in New York. More especially to protect them from frauds heaped upon them by unscrupulous employers and scoundrels. Such a union could often provide shelter for those who are turned upon the streets to starve."—Dressmaker.

"We need the same kind of self government in our schools as was tried by Pestalozzi and by Fellenberg in Switzerland. It should be started in our kindergartens."

PART IV.

APPRENTICESHIP.

CHAPTER I.

DECAY OF APPRENTICESHIP.

Apprenticeship, in the proper sense of the word, no longer exists in America. A boy is no longer led by the hands of his parents to the shop of a master mechanic and there bound under articles duly "signed, sealed, and delivered," to serve his master for five or seven years; and the master is no longer bound to teach his apprentice all the details of his craft under penalties duly "made and provided." The old system is dead and buried in this country, and is on its last legs in Europe. The American boy now generally makes application himself to the proprietor or foreman, and enters upon his so called apprenticeship without any written contract whatever. The term apprenticeship, as now used, is simply a misnomer, for the lad to whom it is applied can go when he pleases and the master is under no obligation to teach him his trade. As a natural result, when a boy gets a smattering knowledge of the business after a year or two of service, he strikes out for himself, because he can get an advance of wages as a helper or unfledged workman.

This decay of apprenticeship is principally owing to the subdivision of labor which now prevails in the manufacture of nearly every article, from a lucifer match to a steam engine. The use of machinery groups workmen into a number of subdivisions or departments in which parts of the article to be manufactured are made. An apprentice is confined to one of these departments and is soon able to earn wages. He usually continues as he began, and instead of learning the craft in all its details, he learns only a small fraction of it. The boy who goes into a watch factory, for instance, may learn how to make a spring, or a hand, or a wheel, but not a watch. Take the manufacture of boots and shoes, and, incredible as it may appear, it is nevertheless the fact, that it is subdivided into so many departments that it takes over ninety separate and distinct terms to denote all their divisions. If a beginner wishes to become master of his trade, he generally finds that it is to the interest of his employer to keep him as long as possible in some one department or subdivision, because he has acquired some knowledge of it and his labor is profitable.

The proprietor of a large dry goods house in San Francisco told me it was his practice, and that of other firms, to keep a boy in one department, and not transfer him to another after he had acquired a knowledge of it, as is the practice in Europe. "We are not bound," said he, "to impart a knowledge of the dry goods business to the boys whom we employ. We pay them wages from the start, and they can leave us without a moment's warning. It is simply a question of dollars and cents on both sides, and if either gets tired of the agreement he is at liberty to break it. Conse-

quently it is a rare exception for a boy to get a thorough knowledge of the business in America, and nearly all our expert buyers and salesmen have been trained abroad."

The workman who understands but one department or subdivision of his trade stands but little chance of bettering his condition. He cannot start into business for himself because his knowledge of it is too limited, and he often finds himself helpless when by some unfortunate turn of events his specialty fails him. But what can a young fellow do who is anxious to master a trade? In factories, or large establishments, he is seldom spoken to by the owner or overseer, and the workman by his side, who is paid by the piece, is too busy to give him instruction. Consequently he has to pick up the business the best way he can. It is no longer the practice for the master to sit by the side of his apprentice and show him how to do the work. I asked a number of young mechanics how they acquired a knowledge of their trade, and the invariable answer was that they picked it up themselves by watching the journeymen at work. They were seldom shown anything by the boss. Oftentimes neither the employer nor his foreman is sufficiently skilled in the trade to be able to instruct others. The crop of unskilled mechanics is therefore on the increase and the demand for thoroughly skilled mechanics was never more urgent, especially in the higher branches. This disregard of the apprenticeship system has filled the trades with incompetent labor, and shows the necessity for the establishment of technical training schools to supply that knowledge which is no longer acquired in the shops, and which the rising generation is sadly in need of. An apprenticeship wherein there is neither obligation to teach nor to learn the trade is one in which the boy is used only as a means of profit without regard for his future, and he finds himself, at the end, only useful in the particular division of the trade in which he has been kept constantly engaged. Sometimes the boy becomes unreasonably puffed up with the conception of his own ability, and breaks away to find cheap employment before he is competent either to direct his course or to discharge his duties as a journeyman mechanic.

One of the first considerations with an employer who takes a lad as an apprentice should be his aptitude for the business. Unfortunately, in nearly all cases, this important phase of the question is entirely ignored by the manager or overseer, who is usually responsible for such matters. Formerly, when employers had in every case a thorough technical knowledge of their trade, considerable care was exercised with respect to the tuition of apprentices. Now, however, employers are frequently non-practical men, who take little or no interest in the details of their business.

The employer who takes a lad as an apprentice undertakes a very grave responsibility, and if as much care were now taken as formerly in training apprentices, the necessity for a technical education would be reduced to a minimum. So important a matter is this, that in my opinion the Legislature should impose a very heavy penalty upon an employer who fails to carry out his contract with an apprentice.

LAWS RELATING TO APPRENTICES.

To all who have given the subject any consideration, the need of a better apprenticeship law than the one we have in this State is evident. The present law provides that the employer, or master, "will cause such a child to be instructed to read and write and to be taught the general rules of arithmetic," but does not contain any clause or word obligating him to teach the minor a trade. It is folly to call it an apprenticeship law at all,

for it reads as if it were intended only for the waifs and vagrants who were likely to become dependent upon the charity of the public.

The following is the text of the so called apprentice law of California:

CIVIL CODE OF CALIFORNIA—TITLE IV—MASTER AND SERVANT.

SECTION 264. Every minor, with the consent of the persons or officers hereinafter mentioned, may, of his own free will, bind himself, in writing, to serve as clerk, apprentice, or servant, in any profession, trade, or employment, during his minority; and such binding shall be as valid and effectual as if such minor was of full age at the time of making the engagement.

SEC. 265. Such consent shall be given:

1. By the father of the minor. If he be dead, or be not of legal capacity to give his consent, or if he shall have abandoned or neglected to provide for his family, and such fact be certified by a Justice of the Peace of the township or county, or sworn to by a credible witness, and such certificate or affidavit be indorsed on the indenture, then:

2. By the mother. If the mother be dead, or be not of legal capacity to give such consent or refusal, then:

3. By the guardian of such infant. If such infant have no parent living, or none in a legal capacity to give consent, and there be no guardian, then:

4. By the Supervisors of the county, or any two Justices of the Peace, or the Judge of the Superior Court of the county.

5. If such minor be an orphan, under the care and control of any orphan asylum in this State, then by the Board of Managers thereof.

SEC. 266. Such consent shall be signified in writing by the person entitled to give the same, by certificate at the end of, or indorsed upon the indentures.

SEC. 267. The executors of any last will of a parent, who shall be directed in such will to bring up his or her child to some trade or calling, may bind such child to service as a clerk, or apprentice, in like manner as the father might have done if living. If there is a surviving mother, her consent also is necessary.

SEC. 268. The Supervisors of the county may bind out minors who are, or shall become chargeable to such county, to be clerks, apprentices, or servants, which binding out shall be as effectual as if such minors had bound themselves with the consent of their father.

SEC. 269. In every town or city the presiding officer of the first council or legislative board thereof, if there be more than one, or any public officer or officers appointed to provide for the poor, may in like manner bind out any child who, or whose parents are, chargeable to any such town or city.

SEC. 270. The age of every infant so bound shall be inserted in the indentures, and shall be taken to be the true age; and whenever public officers are authorized to execute any indentures, or their consent is required to the validity of the same, it shall be their duty to inform themselves fully of the infant's age.

SEC. 271. Every sum of money paid or agreed for, with or in relation to the binding of any clerk, apprentice, or servant, shall be inserted in the indentures.

SEC. 272. The indenture shall also contain an agreement on the part of the person to whom such child shall be bound, that he will cause such child to be instructed to read and write, and to be taught the general rules of arithmetic, or, in lieu thereof, that he will send such child to school three months of each year of the period of indenture.

SEC. 273. The counterpart of any indenture executed by any county, or city, or town officers, must be by them deposited in the office of the County Clerk.

SEC. 274. Any minor, capable of becoming a citizen of this State, coming from any other country, State, or Territory, may bind himself to service until his majority, or for any shorter term. Such contract, if made for the purpose of raising money to pay his passage, or for the payment of such passage, may be for the term of one year, although such term may extend beyond the time when such person will be of full age, but it shall in no case be for a longer term.

SEC. 275. No contract made under the preceding section shall bind the servant, unless duly acknowledged by the minor before some public magistrate or other officer authorized to administer oaths, nor unless a certificate showing that the same was made freely, on private examination, be indorsed upon the contract.

SEC. 276. Such indentures of apprenticeship may be annulled for:

1. Fraud in contract of indenture;

2. When such contract is not made or executed in accordance with the provisions of this title;

3. For willful non-fulfillment, by such master, of the provisions of such indenture;

4. Cruelty or maltreatment of such apprentice by the master. In such case the apprentice may recover for his services.

APPRENTICE LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

A properly framed apprentice law should guard scrupulously both the interests of the employer and the apprentice. It should compel the former to have the boy or girl committed to his care properly instructed in the trade, and oblige the latter to conform to reasonable rules and regulations.

An apprentice law in our day could not be hedged around with the stringent obligations and restrictions of old time laws upon the subject. It should be plain, simple, and to the point. Such a law would be favored by all conscientious employers, and would receive the hearty approva nearly all trade organizations.

Many of the officers of trades unions have been asked their views in this connection by the bureau, and without exception they have expressed themselves in favor of a good apprentice law. The Carpenters and Joiners in the preamble to their constitution say that for "want of a strict apprentice system the trade literally swarms with unskilled men." Their General Executive Board adopted the following resolutions at a meeting held in Philadelphia, February 26, 1887:

CARPENTERS AND JOINERS RULES REGARDING APPRENTICES.

WHEREAS, The rapid influx of unskilled and incompetent men in the carpenter trade has had, of late years, a very depressing and injurious effect upon the mechanics in the business, and has a tendency to degrade the standard of skill and to give no encouragement to young men to become apprentices and to master the trade thoroughly; therefore, in the best interests of the craft, we declare ourselves in favor of the following rules:

SECTION 1. The indenturing of apprentices is the best means calculated to give that efficiency which it is desirable a carpenter should possess, and also to give the necessary guarantee to the employers that some return will be made to them for a proper effort to turn out competent workmen; therefore, we direct that all local unions under our jurisdiction shall use every possible means, wherever practical, to introduce the system of indenturing apprentices.

SEC. 2. Any boy or person hereafter engaging himself to learn the trade of carpentry shall be required to serve a regular apprenticeship of four consecutive years, and shall not be considered a journeyman unless he has complied with this rule, and is twenty-one years of age at the completion of his apprenticeship.

SEC. 3. All boys entering the carpenter trade with the intention of learning the business shall be held by agreement, indenture, or written contract for a term of four years.

SEC. 4. When a boy shall have contracted with an employer to serve a certain term of years, he shall on no pretense whatever leave said employer and contract with another, without the full and free consent of said first employer, unless there is just cause, or that such change is made in consequence of the death or relinquishment of business by the first employer; any apprentice so leaving shall not be permitted to work under the jurisdiction of any local union in our Brotherhood, but shall be required to return to his employer and serve out his apprenticeship.

SEC. 5. It is enjoined upon each local union to make regulations limiting the number of apprentices to be employed in each shop or mill to one for such number of journeymen as may seem to them just; and all unions are recommended to admit to membership apprentices in the last year of their apprenticeship, without the privilege of voting and exempt from the payment of dues for that year, to the end that, upon the expiration of their terms of apprenticeship, they may become acquainted with the workings of the union and be better fitted to appreciate its privileges and obligations upon assuming full membership.

OPINIONS CONCERNING AN APPRENTICESHIP LAW.

In a circular addressed to a large number of teachers, journalists, manufacturers, merchants, tradesmen, master mechanics, and artisans generally, the question was asked: "Do you favor an apprenticeship law, and for what reason?" At least 90 per cent of the returns from mechanics were in the affirmative, but opinions pro and con among the other classes referred to were about equally divided.

School Superintendent W. A. Kirkwood, of Contra Costa, replies: "I do. To cure our youth of instability and fickleness. Also to make them thorough in their trades."

School Superintendent S. G. Wright, of Del Norte County, answers: "Yes, because it would compel a continuity of effort on the part of the minor, till at least a fair knowledge or manual dexterity is gained. Especially is this available for the fathers of unruly boys."

School Superintendent J. H. Shannon, of Inyo County, replies: "I do

favor any law by which our boys can be enabled to learn trades when their inclinations lead them to such a course; further, I feel that the rising generation should be taught some trade or branch of business, thus enabling them to be self-supporting."

School Superintendent Myra A. Parks, of Lassen County, says: "I do not favor an apprenticeship law," but gives no reasons.

School Superintendent A. J. Tiffany, of Nevada County, replies: "I do. As it is now our boys are shut out from learning trades by the Trades Unions."

School Superintendent W. W. Armstrong, of San Luis Obispo County, says: "The enactment of an apprenticeship law would certainly lead to elevating the standard of skilled labor, and would in time do much toward a satisfactory solution of the mixed problem of labor; but the limits of this communication precludes a discussion of the subject in all its bearings."

Professor Charles H. Allen, Principal State Normal School of San José, replies: "Yes; by all means. Now, no one will take a boy to learn a trade, for as soon as the boy has had a little training, away he will go and set up for a journeyman. If by any means a boy can find a place, he is for years kept at the simplest part of the work, where he can learn the least, for fear of the result just named. An apprentice who is bound for a term of years would, on the contrary—were his employer assured of his remaining in service through the term—be put at the most paying part of the work, and would, early in his apprenticeship, be more skillful, so he could learn more and thus in the end would become a better artisan. The result of the apprentice system is better seen in our foreign workmen as contrasted with our native artisans."

School Superintendent H. R. Given, of Trinity County, replies: "Yes; I think it produces better workmen."

School Superintendent G. P. Morgan, of Tuolumne County, answers simply: "No."

Professor William M. Friesner, of Los Angeles, also answers: "No."

In the course of the several investigations into labor grievances conducted by this bureau, the question was asked of a large number of witnesses, both employers and workmen, "Are you in favor of an apprentice law?" And the answer, in almost every instance, was in the affirmative. Especially was this the case during the printers' investigation held in San Francisco and in Oakland. It will be seen by the testimony published elsewhere that all parties concerned were in favor of an apprentice law.

EMPLOYERS CONTRACTS OR AGREEMENTS WITH APPRENTICES.

In the absence of any well defined apprentice law on our statute books which would regulate the respective duties and obligations between employers and minors, the former are at liberty to prescribe for both. This does not trouble the apprentice much, for he knows he is at liberty to refuse the dose when it suits him.

In many establishments a boy or girl, upon first entering, is required merely to enter his or her name upon a register, which may or may not contain articles of agreement, for all the apprentice knows.

In some, employers require their apprentices to sign a form like this:

AGREEMENT.

—— ——, 188—.

The undersigned hereby agrees to work for —— —— upon the following terms, viz.:

First—I am to make myself useful in any department whenever and wherever directed by said —— ——, and am in all things to obey their directions, and their rules and regulations.

Second—I am to receive pay at the rate of ——. My salary to commence from the day and hour when I first report at the time-room. All absent time, other than that allowed for meals, to be deducted from salary.

Third—I am to be discharged by said —— —— whenever in their judgment they deem me incapable of performing the work as they desire.

Name —— ——. Address —— ——. Refers —— ——. Last employed —— ——.

THE UNION IRON WORKS APPRENTICES.

The Union Iron Works, of San Francisco, which gives employment to an immense force of mechanics, receives apprentices under the following conditions:

Boys will be received either as ordinary apprentices, to serve four years in one department, or as engineer apprentices, to serve six years—two years on machines, one year in the pattern shop, one year erecting, and two years in the drafting room.

Ordinary apprentices will be received in the following departments: As machinists, including erecting; as patternmakers; as blacksmiths; as molders, and as boiler and plate workers.

No boy will be received under sixteen years or over eighteen years in the machine, patternmaker, blacksmith, or molder departments; nor under fifteen or over seventeen years of age in the boiler and plate works, including shipwork.

Boys in all departments will be taken on thirty days' trial, in order to satisfy themselves that they have made a proper choice, after which they will be required to register themselves as regular apprentices, by their parents or guardians in their behalf, and by themselves in their own behalf, all of which signatures will be considered as evidence that all the conditions herein named are understood and accepted by all parties interested.

For machinist and patternmaker apprentices the parent or guardian will be required to deposit $50 with the company, as a guarantee of the good behavior of the boy. The company will also deposit $50 to the credit of said boy, said $100 to be paid to the boy on the completion of his apprenticeship.

For molders, blacksmiths, and plateworkers, the company will make the deposit of $50 to the credit of the boy, to be paid to him on completion of his apprenticeship.

Ordinary apprentices' wages shall be: First year, $4 per week; second year, $5 per week; third year, $6 per week; fourth year, $8 per week; three hundred full days must be worked to complete any one year.

Engineer apprentices will be received between the ages of fifteen and seventeen years, for a term of six years, as already set forth. The parent or guardian will be required to deposit $100 as a guarantee of good faith. The company will also deposit $100 to the credit of said boy. Said $200 to be paid to the boy on completion of his apprenticeship.

Engineer apprentices' wages shall be: First year, $4 per week; second year, $5 per week; third year, $6 per week; fourth year, $7 per week; fifth year, $8 per week; sixth year, $9 per week; three hundred full days must be worked to complete any one year.

APPRENTICE LAWS AND AGREEMENTS.

The absence of a properly framed apprentice law on our State books affords scope for wily, designing employers to draw up indentures to suit themselves, wherein their own interests are looked out for most assiduously, but those of the boy and girl completely overlooked. Here is a sample from a San Francisco firm employing from fifteen to twenty apprentices:

The said parties of the second part hereby agree to instruct the party of the third part in the business of ——, through their employés, and not individually or personally; and reserve the right to discharge said —— —— from their employment, under this indenture, and avoid this instrument at any time during said term, on account of any of the causes hereinafter specified; in which case the sum reserved from said wages, as hereinafter specified, shall be forfeited, as hereinafter expressed; and if such discharge shall occur during any part of a month, they shall pay only for the portion of said month served by him, according to said terms; and the said parties of the first and third parts hereby consent hereto.

It is further stipulated and agreed, that the wages as hereinbefore expressed are so fixed upon the express condition and consideration that the said —— —— shall remain and continue in said service and employment for and during the full term of —— years next ensuing from the date hereof; and shall not leave or depart from said service or employment before the expiration of said term of his own will, or by the will, command, or direction of said party of the first part, as hereinbefore expressed; and it is stipulated and agreed that the said parties of the second part shall reserve and keep back from and out of the monthly wages to be paid, as hereinbefore expressed, the following proportion monthly, to wit: the sum of ten per cent thereof; and at the expiration of said term, if

said —— —— shall not have been discharged, but shall have continued and then still be in said service and employment, the said entire amount so reserved and kept back shall be paid to him; but no interest shall accrue or be payable thereon.

If the said —— —— should voluntarily quit said service and employment before the expiration of said term, as herein expressed; or should leave by command or direction of said party of the first part, or any other person or persons, before the expiration of said term; or should be discharged for any of the causes hereinafter specified, the wages to be paid shall be the respective sums as hereinbefore expressed, with the said reserved sums deducted therefrom, and no more; and in that case, no claim shall exist against said parties of the second part for said sums reserved and kept back, as aforesaid.

The said —— —— shall conform to all the rules and regulations now in force in the workroom of said parties of the second part, and to such changes as may hereafter be made therein; and shall faithfully and diligently perform all lawful work and labor in and about said employment that may be required of him; and obey all lawful directions of said parties of the second part, within the scope of his employment; and a failure, neglect, or refusal of said —— —— to conform to said rules and regulations, and the changes thereof that may hereafter be made, and to perform said work and labor, or to obey said directions or any of them, shall be just cause for his discharge from said employment, and for the forfeiture of said reserved pay, as hereinbefore expressed.

It is further stipulated, that the wages herein agreed to be paid to said party of the first part, may be paid to said —— ——, and his receipt therefor shall be a full discharge thereof to said parties of the second part.

The said —— ——, of his own free will, consents hereto, and agrees faithfully and honestly to serve said parties of the second part in said employment, for and during said full term of —— years next ensuing from the date hereof; upon the terms, and subject to all the conditions, reservations, and forfeitures, as hereinbefore expressed.

And the said party of the first part hereby covenants that the said —— —— shall continue in said employment for and during said full term of —— years next ensuing from the date hereof; and shall, during said time, conform to all the rules and regulations as hereinbefore specified; and shall perform all lawful work and labor that may be required of him; and shall obey all lawful directions of said parties of the second part, within the scope of his said employment; and that he shall not voluntarily quit said employment until the expiration of said term.

In former years an apprentice was placed under the care of a journeyman, who was responsible to his master for his proper tuition, and who was remunerated for the extra trouble and loss of time occasioned. At the present time, however, apprentices are left to pick up the trade the best way they can, being used by the employers solely for the purpose of profit, and kept to the purely mechanical portion of trade; often used as errand boys, instead of being thoroughly taught the various technicalities connected therewith, by which means alone they can ever hope to raise themselves above the common level or become thoroughly competent workmen.

The Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics, in discussing the decadence of genuine apprenticeship and trade learning, says:

The disappearance of the apprentice system has tended to foster a natural vanity, which we see illustrated daily, in the desire to bring up one or two sons of a family to be a clerk or a bookkeeper, or to follow some other "genteel occupation," of which clean hands, and nice clothes, and a "respectable appearance" are the concomitants. The number seeking clerkships appears to be proportionally greater each year, and because people will so numerously seek this kind of employment by which to live, and fail to realize their hopes, it becomes one of the sources of the genteel pauperism which is beginning to make its appearance among us. It is asserted by some well informed and close observers that the majority of tramps, paupers, and criminals is drawn from the class that starts out in life as clerks, bookkeepers, and followers of other "genteel occupations," a few from among the ranks of skilled mechanics.

The data furnished in the report of the State Prison Directors ef California for the year 1887, do not corroborate this assertion, for the number of clerks and bookkeepers in our two State Prisons amounts only to thirty-seven out of a total of eighteen hundred and twenty-seven prisoners. But when it comes to the question of "How many of these prisoners have been brought up to a trade?" State Prison statistics prove that an overwhelming majority have not learned to employ themselves usefully in any particular occupation where skill or experience is required.

APPRENTICESHIP—PRISON STATISTICS.

Captain Charles Aull, Warden of the State Prison at Folsom, says: "It is a safe estimate that 75 per cent of the criminal element proper has been brought into a life of crime by the utter neglect of proper care and training in youth."

The following table shows the number of convicts claiming to be mechanics at the time they were received into the State Prison at San Quentin, and their occupation, collated from the Warden's report for 1887:

TABLE W.

Mechanics at San Quentin Prison.

Occupation.	Number.	Occupation.	Number.
Baker	9	Iron worker	1
Blacksmith	18	Molder	3
Brick mason	4	Machinist	15
Boilermaker	5	Mattressmaker	1
Bolt cutter	1	Millwright	2
Buttonmaker	1	Printer	13
Boxmaker	1	Plumber	2
Blockmaker	1	Painter	22
Brewer	3	Porter	1
Bookbinder	1	Photograph painter	1
Carver	4	Polisher	1
Carpenter	32	Pianomaker	1
Cigarmaker	24	Roller	1
Cabinetmaker	6	Ship carpenter	4
Cooper	2	Sashmaker	3
Chairmaker	2	Stonecutter	4
Carriagemaker	1	Shoemaker	27
Dyer	1	Sailmaker	1
Engineer	14	Spinner	1
Electrician	1	Sticker and planer	1
Furniture polisher	1	Tailor	10
Foundryman	4	Tinsmith	6
Filer and sawyer	2	Tanner	2
Gardener	4	Upholsterer	2
Gasfitter	3	Weaver	2
Glovemaker	1	Wheelwright	1
Harnessmaker	15	Watchmaker	1
Horseshoer	3		
Hatter	1	Total	294

The total number of prisoners was one thousand two hundred and twenty, which shows that 24.09 per cent, or less than one fourth, were skilled artisans, including proficient, fair, and poor.

The number of laborers is given as three hundred and seventy-six; barkeepers, ten; hostlers, twenty-two; herders, three; teamsters, thirty-one; vaqueros, thirty-seven; washmen, seventy-three; waiters, seventeen; sailors, thirty-four; miners, twenty-five; brakemen, seven; firemen, seven; stevedores, six; railroad employés, six; quarrymen, two; making a total of convicts who may be classed as unskilled, of six hundred and fifty-six, or more than half the entire number of convicts. There were twenty under the heads of clerk and bookkeeper.

The educational abilities of the prisoners are given as follows:

Read and write	808
Read and cannot write	77
Neither read nor write	335
Total	1,220

So that while nearly two thirds of the convicts can read and write, not one half have learned a trade, and less than one fourth are mechanics.

The following table shows the number of mechanics under the headings of "proficient," "fair," and "poor," in the State Prison at Folsom, according to the Warden's report for 1887:

TABLE X.

Mechanics at Folsom Prison.

Occupation.	Proficient.	Fair.	Poor.	Total.
Baker	2	4	1	7
Blacksmith	7	4	1	12
Broommaker	1			1
Boilermaker	2		1	3
Bookbinder			1	1
Bootmaker		1		1
Bricklayer	2	1		3
Buttonmaker		1		1
Cigarmaker	2	1		3
Carpenter	5	3	7	15
Cabinetmaker	1		1	2
Chairmaker		1		1
Carriage body maker		1		1
Civil engineer	1			1
Engineer	3	3	1	7
Engineer and interpreter	1			1
Gardener	3	2	1	6
Glass blower		2		2
Gasfitter		1		1
Horseshoer	1	2		3
Harnessmaker	1	3		4
Iron bridge builder		1		1
Locksmith		1	1	2
Lead smelter		1		1
Molder		2		2
Millwright			1	1
Marble cutter	1			1
Machinist	1	4		5
Painter	5	9	2	16
Pipemaker		1		1
Printer	1	2	1	4
Plumber		1	2	3
Plasterer	1			1
Pressman		1		1
Paper decorator		1		1
Stonecutter		2		2
Saddler	1			1
Sawyer		1		1
Stonemason	1			1
Sailmaker		4		4
Shoecutter		2		2
Shoemaker	5	7	3	15
Shoe fitter	1			1
Silver smelter			1	1
Tailor	2	5	4	11
Tinsmith	3	1		4
Turner		1		1
Tanner			1	1
Tool dresser			1	1
Upholsterer	1	1		2
Weaver	1			1
Wood carver		1		1
Totals	56	79	31	166

The total number of prisoners was six hundred and seven, so that only about 9 per cent were "proficient" mechanics, 13 per cent "fair," and 5 per cent "poor;" making a total of 27 per cent who had learned a mechanic's

trade. There were one hundred and thirty-eight convicts classed as common laborers; no occupation, five; cooks, forty-nine; hostlers, thirteen; laundrymen, eighteen; waiters, thirty; sailors, seventeen; barkeepers, seven; boatmen, three; brakemen, two; bootblack, one; book agent, one; firemen, seven; jockeys, two; peddler, one; quarryman, one; railroad employés, four; ragpickers, two; servant, one; stewards, two; soldiers, two; herder, one; sport, one; saloon keeper, one; vaqueros, five; valet, one; wool-washer, one; wood choppers, two; watchman, one; making a total of unskilled laborers of three hundred and nineteen, or more than half the total number of convicts. There were seventeen under the head of clerks and bookkeepers.

Under the head of "ability to gain a livelihood," three hundred and sixty-four are put down as able to earn less than a dollar per day.

The number of prisoners able to read and write	417
Able to read only	117
Illiterate	71
Total	605

In Folsom Prison, therefore, more than two thirds of the convicts can read and write, while less than one fourth are "proficient" and "fair" mechanics. These statistics from Folsom Prison are almost on a par with those given from San Quentin, and prove that it is not so much ignorance, as the want of knowing a trade, which leads to crime.

Taking the two prisons together, it will be seen that while only about 22 per cent of the convicts are illiterate, more than 53 per cent have not been brought up to a trade.

The cost of maintaining the prisoners at San Quentin for the year ending June 30, 1887, was $158,722 58, or at the rate of $10 86 per month for each prisoner. The cost at Folsom was $108,732 09, or at the rate of $12 47 per month for each prisoner, making a total cost for the support of the State prisoners of $267,454 67.

If we take the number of prisoners given above as the average throughout the year, the cost of maintenance per head would be $146 38 for the year, or $12 20 per month.

The State apportionment per census child for teaching the children of the State in our public schools for the year 1886 was $7 92, or at the rate of 66 cents per month. It costs the State, therefore, more to support one criminal than to teach eighteen children.

In an article in the "Journal of Industrial Education," the following facts from the pen of Mr. Ethelbert Stewart throw further light upon this important subject:

Of the five hundred and fifty-two convicts received into the Eastern Penitentiary, of Pennsylvania, in 1886, four hundred and seventy-seven had a "fair common school education"—and that proportion seems typical. Not that they have not been to Sunday school; of the five hundred and sixty-four convicts received in the same prison in 1885, five hundred and fifteen had been Sunday school scholars for longer or shorter times. Not that they are intemperate; of the five hundred and fifty-two, one hundred and four were total abstainers, and of the five hundred and sixty-four, ninety-nine were total abstainers. The most common, the most generic fact, is that *the convicts know no trade.* Of those five hundred and fifty-two, thirty-nine had learned a trade by apprenticeship; ten had been apprenticed, but had left before finishing; sixty-two had "picked up a trade or two by working at them," leaving four hundred and forty-one "entirely ignorant of trade knowledge." Of the five hundred and sixty-four received the year before, four hundred and fifty-nine had no trade knowledge. Of the four hundred and sixty-one convicts received in 1884, three hundred and sixty-one had no trade knowledge. Of the four hundred and seventy-one male prisoners received in 1883, three hundred and seventy-eight had never learned a trade. Between 1876 and 1885, this Pennsylvania penitentiary received, in all, ten hundred and sixty-nine convicts under twenty-one years old; of these, eight hundred and sixty-four had fair common school learning, but nine hundred

and ninety-three had never learned a trade. Of the fourteen hundred and ninety-four convicts in the Joliet Prison, Illinois, one hundred and fifty-one are "illiterate;" one hundred and twenty-seven can read, but not write; ten hundred and eighty-seven have fair education; one hundred and twenty-nine are college graduates. Of the same number, four hundred and thirteen are classed as "intemperate;" seven hundred and sixty-four as "moderate drinkers;" three hundred and seventeen as "total abstainers." Of the six hundred and sixty-eight received at Joliet between October and October, 1885-6, four hundred and seventy-eight had no trade knowledge. Chicago spends yearly $18 93 for each pupil in her public schools; it costs her $33 per arrest for each of her forty-four thousand two hundred and sixty-one arrests made in 1886, and the City of Chicago never expended a dollar to teach a boy a trade. London pays from the city treasury $385,000 a year toward the support of trade schools, and (Mr. Stewart asks), "May there not be some connection between this fact and the fact that in 1883 there was in London but one arrest for each forty-eight of the population, while in New York, during the same year, there was one arrest to each twenty-one of the population; in Brooklyn, one to twenty-three; in St. Louis, one to twenty; and in Chicago, one to fifteen?"

Statistics compiled in recent years in Massachusetts show that out of seventeen hundred and twenty-seven male adult paupers in that State, when the returns were tabulated, eight hundred and eighty-seven, or more than one half, had not learned a trade, and that but few of the remainder had attempted to serve an apprenticeship; in fact, that the majority had never learned how to make a living by honest labor. A further return showed that of four thousand three hundred and forty convicts, two thousand nine hundred and ninety-one, or 68 per cent, had never a trade or fixed occupation; and of two hundred and twenty committed to a certain prison in one year, one hundred and forty-seven were without a trade or any regular means of earning a living. In another State, out of three hundred and seventy-three prisoners committed in one year, two hundred and eighty-four had no fixed occupation.

APPRENTICESHIP ADVERTISEMENTS.

All boys cannot follow a professional or clerical course, even if every boy had the means to do so. Thousands of boys and girls are daily seeking to learn trades in the face of obstacles encountered from every quarter. Read the want columns in the daily newspapers and such insertions as the following will invariably meet the eye:

STEADY, INTELLIGENT CARPENTER, AGED TWENTY-TWO, WISHES TO learn patternmaking; low wages to start.

YOUNG BOY WISHES SITUATION AS CASH-BOY OR TO LEARN BARBER trade.

STRONG, STEADY BOY OF SEVENTEEN, WISHES ANY KIND OF WORK OR to learn a good trade.

BOY FIFTEEN YEARS OLD WOULD LIKE TO LEARN A TRADE FOR A home.

If boys are debarred from learning a particular trade, then "to learn any kind of a trade" is the next desperate resort. Advertising for a chance to learn a trade is usually the last hope of a boy or girl, and is not tried until the efforts to obtain a place through the aid of friends and one's own exertions have failed. In a rapidly developing country, where trade of all kinds is brisk, where immigration is desired, and where "help" is in demand, it is astonishing to think that an intelligent boy or girl, willing and able to work, should have any difficulty in finding a place in which to learn a trade. And yet there is no doubt that such is the fact. Collected from one of the San Francisco daily newspapers, the following table shows the number applying for places in a few occupations for the year ending July 31, 1888:

TABLE Y.

Apprentices Applying for Places—Showing the Trade, Number of Applicants, and Month of Advertisement.

Occupation.	1887.					1888.							Total.
	August	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	
Barber	3	3	3	----	3	2	----	----	2	----	----	2	18
Blacksmith	1	----	1	----	----	----	2	1	----	----	----	1	6
Butcher	----	2	----	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	8	----	11
Bartender	----	2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	2
Carpenter	2	2	2	2	1	2	----	----	----	1	2	----	15
Cigarmaker	1	1	----	1	1	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	5
Dry goods	----	----	1	2	----	1	2	----	----	----	----	1	7
Hardware	1	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	2
Machinist	----	----	----	1	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	1	3
"Any kind of a trade"	1	----	2	2	2	5	1	2	1	4	6	2	28
Printing	----	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	1	2
Plumbing	----	----	----	----	1	3	----	1	----	1	----	----	6
Patternmaker	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	1
Photography	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	1
Shoemaking	2	----	----	----	----	1	----	3	----	----	----	1	7
Tinsmith	----	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	1
Waiter	----	2	----	2	----	1	----	1	----	----	----	1	7
Upholstering	----	2	----	1	----	----	----	2	----	1	----	----	6
Total	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	128

FOREIGN SUPPLY OF MECHANICS.

American youths are not without ambition, but have not the proper facilities for acquiring a trade and the encouragement to learn one. In this connection the report of the New York Bureau of Labor Statistics contains some surprising statements, which it seems difficult to believe, although the evidence seems well established by sworn testimony. "Our supply of native mechanics," says Commissioner Peck, "is daily augmented by the skilled labor of Europe, and while this foreign element is not equal to the skilled labor which is retained in Europe, is in the main vastly superior to that produced in our own country. Whether unrestricted foreign immigration be or not a national blessing may be disputed, but a visit to the workshops of the State will demonstrate the truthfulness of the statement that the large majority of our tradesmen and mechanics are foreigners. Indeed, in many trades and industrial establishments, there is not a single American at work. The presence of so large a number of foreign born workers means the exclusion of American labor." Another point he made is that "most of the boys and young men learning trades were either foreign born or sons of foreign workers." Commissioner Peck also says that the figures and facts collected by him show that our artisans are not able to compete successfully with the artisans of other countries.

A loud cry has been raised, and very properly so, against the importation of pauper and contract labor from Europe. Congress has taken the matter in hand, and a Commission has been appointed to inquire into the evils arising from such unrestricted immigration. But while adopting measures against the indiscriminate pouring in of *unskilled* labor, have we not reason to take some steps to protect ourselves against the *skilled* labor

of Europe? The best of European mechanics do not emigrate to this country. The best in any country do not leave it, for they are generally well paid and are content with their lot. It is a fact, nevertheless, that while we are napping or indifferent to the question of "How shall our boys become skilled workmen?" the nations abroad are awake and in earnest.

France, England, and other European countries are now engaged in a contest as to whom shall be awarded the palm for excellence in skilled workmanship. Technical training schools are being widely established in those countries. One of the leading statesmen of England, Lord Hartington, speaking of the necessity of promoting technical education in Great Britain, said "it was not a matter of choice but of necessity" with them to educate labor, in consequence of what was being done in other countries in the same direction.

Here in California, so far removed from the *entrepot* of European labor, the proportion of foreign born skilled mechanics to the native is more evenly balanced than in New York.

The crowded out native in the East "pulled up his stakes," gathered together his tools, and struck out for the far West. It takes a considerable amount of money for a mechanic to pay his way to California, and the result is, we have not so many European mechanics in proportion to the native born as can be found in eastern cities.

On the other hand, this has been the dumping ground for the Asiatic coolie, whose blighting influence upon the social, moral, and industrial affairs of our people has been shown up in the previous reports of this bureau. One of the worst effects which the Chinese immigration has had on the laboring part of the population of California, as pointed out in an address from the Federated Trades, lies in the fact that it has degraded certain branches of labor, so that no white man or woman can now resort to them for their sustenance, without being driven thereto by extreme necessity. The industrial pursuits in which Chinese are mostly engaged are, in making cigars, shoes, slippers, trunks, bags, brooms, shirts, ladies' underwear, and gentlemen's goods. They can also be found working, though not extensively, as tailors, tinsmiths, candlemakers, boxmakers, brickmakers, harness and collar makers, dairymen, expressmen, miners, butchers, fishermen, and laundrymen. They are occupied in the houses as domestics, on the farms, in the vineyards, orchards, vegetable gardens, hop yards, and strawberry gardens.

Many large farms and vineyards in California are worked entirely by Chinese on the contract system. In smaller places, the Chinese have introduced a system of hiring themselves out for a short, stated time. To compete with this, the white man has had to adopt the same system, and this renders the hope for him to obtain permanent employment almost nil. He takes his blanket with him and sleeps on the ground or in the poorest kind of an outhouse. Where blooming villages should have sprung up, we find acres and acres devoid of houses, and, what is worse, there is scarcely a town which has not its secluded spot, its wash house, or similar place, sheltering a filthy band of Asiatics.

CHAPTER II.

NATIVE AND FOREIGN BORN MECHANICS.

Entirely omitting Chinese, I deemed it a matter of considerable interest and instruction to ascertain approximately the nativity of the workingmen of San Francisco, in order to see how we compare with New York as regards the proportion of native to foreign born mechanics. To get at reliable statistics as to the nationalities of the different classes of mechanics is impossible, except by means of a census. The register of voters in San Francisco gives the occupation and place of nativity of every registered voter, and tables are herewith submitted, collected from the register of 1886, showing the total number in each occupation, and the total number of native and foreign born skilled mechanics. It must be taken into consideration that there are many foreign born skilled mechanics who are either not citizens or have not registered. Many of the trades unions require their members to become citizens if they are not so when they join the union, but no reliable data could be obtained by me as to the number of non-voters and absentees from registering. In scanning the table of occupations it is well to bear in mind that cognate occupations must be considered together in order to ascertain the whole number. For instance, clerk, bookkeeper, accountant, auditor, and secretary, should be added together. So with compositor and printer, barkeeper and saloon keeper, editor and journalist. Take the number of brass molders, which is given at four, and it would at once suggest itself that this is an error, as there must be a far larger amount. The reason why the number is not larger is because the other voters of that trade when asked their occupation simply gave that of "molder," leaving out the "brass." Coffin makers, of whom there are only two, put themselves down as carpenters or cabinetmakers. Clothiers, who number only eight, are put down as merchants, and so on. Under the designation of merchant a host of occupations is covered, and that is the reason the number is so large—two thousand one hundred and nine. The word "laborer" also embraces a great number of unskilled occupations under many technical names.

TABLE Z.

Table showing the Occupations of Voters Registered in San Francisco, 1886.

Architect	53	Bookkeeper	991
Assayer	39	Bellman	16
Agent	331	Baker	293
Auditor	1	Brass finisher	66
Actor	70	Bank teller	16
Asphaltum	8	Bartender	508
Artist	44	Baggageman	5
Army officer	2	Bookbinder	76
Auctioneer	34	Bookseller	15
Armorer	4	Boilermaker	286
Apprentice	2	Boat builder	25
Blacksmith	633	Basketmaker	4
Butcher	768	Boarding house	22
Barber	450	Brewer	134
Beltmaker	8	Brush manufacturer	27
Brakeman	13	Bottler	16
Boxmaker	89	Boot treer	3
Bill poster	9	Bridge builder	4
Banker	32	Bolt cutter	7
Broker	115	Band sawing	6
Bricklayer	186	Boatman	61

TABLE Z—Continued.

Butler	14	Cidermaker	4
Bagmaker	8	Civil engineer	35
Brass polisher	5	Candlemaker	2
Bag cutter	2	Combmaker	2
Blockmaker	4	Carriage trimmer	30
Bootblack	38	Driver	192
Blindmaker	2	Distiller	13
Bottlemaker	2	Dishwasher	6
Bag sewer	6	Druggist	224
Broommaker	12	Driller	6
Billiardmaker	2	Draughtsman	51
Bracketmaker	6	Dentist	119
Brickmaker	5	Drayman	121
Brassmolder	4	Dyer	28
Bronzer	9	Detective	11
Carpenter	1,827	Doorkeeper	6
Clerk	3,932	Dairyman	254
Coffinmaker	2	Designer	4
Chemist	26	Dressmaker	7
Commission merchant	59	Decorator	11
Coal dealer	133	Dancing master	4
Chipper	2	Diver	2
Cooper	225	Drover	19
Coachman	100	Dresser	6
Currier	35	Editor	16
Cashier	67	Engraver	41
Chairmaker	9	Engineer	768
Calker	141	Expressman	322
Cabinetmaker	168	Electrotyper	8
Canvasser	55	Electroplater	17
Cook	361	Electrician	29
Confectioner	63	Fringemaker	4
Cork burner	4	Flour dealer	1
Contractor	372	Furniture dealer	46
Clothier	8	Finisher	64
Collector	225	Farmer	141
Commercial traveler	149	Florist	34
Cigarmaker	194	Framemaker	34
Cigar dealer	118	Foreman	140
Capitalist	323	Felter	1
Caterer	8	Fireman	245
Collarmaker	18	Fruit dealer	90
Canner	9	Fisherman	90
Coremaker	9	Foundryman	38
Chaplain	2	Fire patrol	5
Coppersmith	26	File cutter	5
Consul	1	Fruit cutter	4
Card writer	6	Fitter	4
Canmaker	22	Flour packer	2
Clergyman	79	Fish dealer	29
Carpet layer	35	Fur dealer	23
Candymaker	17	Fresco painter	11
Car driver	154	Furniture painter	9
Conductor	193	Grocer	820
Compositor	119	Gripman	87
Custom cutter	2	Grinder	4
Cutler	16	Glazier	35
Car builder	21	Glove cutter	24
Carriagemaker	115	Gilder	28
Carver	6	Gardener	197
Custom house	39	Glassmaker	5
Coffee roaster	7	Guard	14
Chair repairer	2	Goldbeater	7
Carpet dealer	4	Gasfitter	124
Carder	9	Galvanizer	6
Cork cutter	1	Glassblower	23
Chiropodist	3	Grain dealer	23
Costumer	4	Glass engraver	4
Cane worker	4	Gauger	12
Cutter	44	Gunsmith	15
Carpet beater	5	Glass stainer	5
Carriage painter	16	Glovemaker	15
Cloakmaker	7	Grainer	30

TABLE Z—Continued.

Glove finisher	3	Melter	13
Gentleman	2	Mattressmaker	20
Glue manufacturing	1	Mill hand	76
Hay dealer	17	Marble cutter	70
Hair dresser	16	Mechanic	58
Hostler	224	Mason	39
Hotel runner	4	Marble dealer	5
Hackman	110	Mineralogist	2
Harnessmaker	113	Milliner	2
Horse dealer	19	Metallurgist	5
Hotel keeper	185	Marble polish	9
Hardware	21	No occupation	556
House mover	36	News agent	24
Hatter	54	Newspaper	9
Horse trainer	12	Notary	23
Horse clipper	7	Nurse	22
Insurance	230	Naturalist	3
Inventor	8	Nailer	2
Ironworker	81	Netmaker	1
Interpreter	15	Optician	19
Ironmolder	55	Oysterman	43
Instrumentmaker	6	Oil finisher	1
Inspector	59	Oiler	19
Iceman	6	Operator	3
Ivory turner	1	Painter	1,017
Inkmaker	2	Propertyman	11
Jeweler	186	Plumber	407
Janitor	130	Plasterer	208
Jockey	1	Porter	654
Journalist	154	Policeman	475
Junk dealer	19	Patternmaker	80
Japanner	6	Photographer	74
Joiner	13	Printer	675
Jobber	13	Pork packer	20
Kalsominer	1	Piano tuner	10
Knitter	1	Pilot	26
Laborer	3,962	Peddler	133
Law clerk	18	Pressman	58
Liquor dealer	255	Packer	94
Locksmith	36	Physician	373
Land expert	2	Polisher	46
Laundry	198	Professor	3
Librarian	14	Patrolman	7
Lodging-house	73	Paver	20
Lumberman	99	Paper dealer	2
Lawyer	619	Paper hanger	42
Livery stable	50	Politician	13
Longshore	206	Paper carrier	57
Letter carrier	130	Pharmacist	6
Lastmaker	10	Pipefitter	1
Lighthouse	5	Produce	76
Lamplighter	34	Pantryman	4
Lather	44	Publisher	42
Lithographer	32	Paper ruler	12
Logger	1	Purser	11
Lumper	2	Presser	5
Lapidary	2	Planer	3
Lecturer	3	Pianomaker	26
Leather dealer	7	Pipemaker	4
Merchant	2,109	Parasolmaker	6
Morocco dresser	7	Papermaker	2
Miner	427	Perfumer	4
Manager	63	Phrenologist	1
Miller	74	Provision dealer	1
Manufacturer	277	Penmaker	1
Molder	260	Rubber stamps	1
Millwright	53	Restaurant	135
Messenger	30	Rancher	13
Millstones	1	Real estate	400
Machinist	755	Roofer	51
Master mariner	92	Reporter	71
Musician	189	Rigger	43
Metal roofer	22	Railroad	100

TABLE Z—Continued.

Raftsman	2	Sparmaker	3
Ropemaker	15	Suspendermaker	4
Renovator	1	Sawmaker	3
Rubbermaker	3	Springmaker	2
Rope splicer	6	Type caster	9
Stock driver	4	Tallow dealer	2
Ship joiner	30	Teamster	1,625
Shoe crimper	5	Telegrapher	62
Sailmaker	62	Tinsmith	248
Silversmith	16	Tobacconist	23
Speculator	109	Treasurer	8
Stevedore	247	Teacher	169
Steward	110	Tailor	469
Superintendent	120	Tanner	200
Surveyor	60	Ticket agent	2
Showman	10	Trainer	2
Shipwright	133	Trunkmaker	46
Saloon keeper	946	Turner	15
Salesman	977	Type foundry	10
Seaman	661	Taxidermist	2
Student	104	Tentmaker	4
Stair builder	25	Type finisher	5
Sawmaker	5	Type writer	2
Spinner	13	Trussmaker	2
Shoemaker	815	Timekeeper	3
Storekeeper	67	Undertaker	46
Stove mounter	13	Upholsterer	206
Solicitor	86	Umbrellamaker	4
Stonecutter	97	Usher	4
Strimmer	1	United States Marshal	1
Secretary	117	United States navy officer	1
Switchman	3	Valisemaker	1
Sawyer	64	Vegetable dealer	2
Steamboat	35	Varnisher	64
Stable keeper	120	Ventriloquist	2
Sill setter	1	Violinmaker	1
Shirtmaker	21	Viticulturist	1
Seedsman	2	Vinegarmaker	1
Shoe fitter	30	Vocalist	4
Saddler	37	Waiter	420
Stationer	44	Wagonmaker	33
Safe builder	3	Watchman	232
Stockman	31	Weaver	20
Shoefinisher	5	Wheelwright	20
Stock broker	28	Wood carver	38
Sashmaker	12	Weigher	62
Shuttermaker	1	Wharf builder	12
Stone mason	11	Wool sorter	57
Soldier	69	Whitener	34
Stenographer	47	Wood turner	26
Ship liner	3	Wood dealer	7
Searcher of records	21	Wood polisher	1
Steamfitter	9	Watchmaker	38
Spice man	4	Wine dresser	6
Scavenger	16	Wire worker	31
Shoe cutter	61	Well borer	1
Ship chandler	7	Watch-case maker	1
Soapmaker	32	Wire drawer	5
Stereotyper	13	Wigmaker	1
Saw filer	7	Wharfinger	7
Sculptor	3	Whipmaker	7
Shoe dealer	24	Yeastmaker	1
Salt dealer	1		
Soda water	10	Grand total	48,523
Stonemaker	2		

TABLE A A.

Showing Nativity of Voters Registered in San Francisco in 1886.

Native Born.	
Alabama	62
Arkansas	20
Alaska	3
California	7,857
Connecticut	430
Colorado	8
Delaware	62
District of Columbia	85
Florida	15
Georgia	64
Indiana	271
Iowa	155
Illinois	504
Idaho	4
Indian Territory	2
Kansas	21
Kentucky	249
Louisiana	317
Maine	1,210
Massachusetts	2,695
Mississippi	54
Missouri	399
Michigan	265
Minnesota	51
Maryland	439
New York	4,970
New Jersey	445
New Hampshire	386
North Carolina	61
Nevada	89
Nebraska	16
New Mexico	6
Ohio	927
Oregon	99
Pennsylvania	1,379
Rhode Island	252
South Carolina	104
Tennessee	107
Texas	42
Utah	21
United States	2
Vermont	374
Virginia	410
Wisconsin	284
Washington Territory	24
Wyoming Territory	1
Total	25,241

Foreign Born.	
Austria	368
Australia	212
Africa	4
Azores	10
At sea	30
Belgium	45
Brazil	6
British America	3
British Columbia	17
Bohemia	23
Canada	506
Cuba	5
Chile	27
Cape of Good Hope	2
China	1
Central America	2
Denmark	320
England	1,777
East Indies	8
Ecuador	1
France	644
Finland	21
Germany	6,296
Greece	20
Gibraltar	1
Great Britain	2
Guatemala	1
Holland	81
Honduras	2
Hungary	34
Ireland	9,608
India	3
Italy	582
Isle of Man	13
Isle of Jersey	2
Isle of Guernsey	3
Island of Madeira	1
Island of St. Helena	1
Island of St. Thomas	1
Island of Jamaica	16
Japan	3
Mexico	34
Malta	5
New Brunswick	152
New Zealand	12
Newfoundland	18
Nova Scotia	198
Norway	194
Portugal	88
Poland	190
Peru	4
Prince Edward Island	55
Philippine Islands	3
Russia	190
Roumania	2
Spain	19
South America	6
Scotland	569
Sweden	398
Switzerland	279
Society Islands	1
Sandwich Islands	9
Turkey	2
United States of Colombia	4
Venezuela	3
Wales	101
West Indies	35
Total	23,273

Total native born citizens	25,241
Total foreign born citizens	23,273
Grand total	48,514

Excess of native born, 1,964, or 8 per cent.

TABLE B B.

Number of Native and Foreign Born Artisans Registered Voters in San Francisco, 1886.

Occupation.	Native.	Foreign.	Total.	Occupation.	Native.	Foreign.	Total.
Architect	33	20	53	Lather	29	15	44
Assayer	29	10	39	Lithographer	24	8	32
Bricklayer	90	96	186	Locksmith	13	23	36
Brass finisher	42	24	66	Machinist	404	351	755
Boatbuilder	19	6	25	Marble cutter	30	40	70
Brushmaker	19	8	27	Mason	13	26	39
Blacksmith	311	322	633	Mattressmaker	13	7	20
Boilermaker	142	144	286	Millwright	36	17	53
Carpenter	978	849	1,827	Molder	139	121	260
Cabinetmaker	55	113	168	Musician	93	96	189
Carriagemaker	63	52	115	Optician	10	9	19
Carriage painter	11	5	16	Painter	647	370	1,017
Carriage trimmer	26	4	30	Patternmaker	56	24	80
Calker	76	65	141	Photographer	54	20	74
Cigarmaker	81	113	194	Pianomaker	11	15	26
Civil engineer	28	7	35	Plasterer	76	132	208
Compositor	101	18	119	Plumber	266	141	407
Cooper	96	129	225	Pressman	44	14	58
Currier	17	18	35	Printer	538	137	675
Cutler	9	7	16	Rigger	11	32	43
Coppersmith	14	12	26	Roofer	47	21	68
Decorator	8	3	11	Ropemaker	5	10	15
Draughtsman	35	16	51	Saddler	20	17	37
Electrician	18	11	29	Safemaker	1	2	3
Electroplater	10	7	17	Sailmaker	28	34	62
Electrotyper	5	3	8	Sashmaker	5	7	12
Engraver	22	19	41	Sculptor	3	------	3
Finisher	44	20	64	Ship joiner	23	7	30
Foundryman	28	10	38	Shipwright	54	79	133
Framemaker	24	10	34	Shoemaker	305	587	892
Fresco painter	3	8	11	Silversmith	5	11	16
Furrier	8	15	23	Stairbuilder	11	14	25
Gasfitter	84	40	124	Stereotyper	6	7	13
Gardener	34	163	197	Stonecutter	35	62	97
Gilder	15	13	28	Surveyor	42	18	60
Glass blower	18	5	23	Tanner	65	135	200
Glass maker	2	3	5	Tailor	77	392	469
Glass engraver	3	1	4	Tinsmith	161	87	248
Glass stainer	4	1	5	Trunkmaker	34	12	46
Glazier	8	27	35	Umbrellamaker	------	4	4
Glove cutter	17	7	24	Upholsterer	128	78	206
Glovemaker	10	5	15	Varnisher	35	29	64
Gunsmith	9	6	15	Wagonmaker	18	15	33
Hatter	33	21	54	Watchmaker	20	18	38
Harnessmaker	60	53	113	Weaver	9	11	20
Instrumentmaker	4	2	6	Wharfbuilder	7	5	12
Ironmolder	39	16	55	Wheelwright	9	11	20
Ironworker	30	51	81	Wire worker	17	14	31
Japanner	5	1	6	Wood carver	20	18	38
Jeweler	109	77	186	Wood turner	12	14	26
Joiner	8	5	13				
Lastmaker	8	2	10	Totals	6,644	5,960	12,604

Total of native born artisans 6,644
Total of foreign born artisans 5,960

Excess of native born ..... 684, or 11 per cent.

Among the registered voters of San Francisco it can be seen that while the number of native born exceeds the foreign by only 8 per cent, the number of native mechanics exceeds the foreign by 11 per cent. The trades in which the foreign element largely predominates are tailors, shoe-

makers, tanners, gardeners, cigarmakers, cabinetmakers, locksmiths, masons, riggers, glaziers, stonecutters, coopers, and plasterers. Those in which the native predominates are printers and compositors, plumbers and gas fitters, painters, millwrights, patternmakers, photographers, roofers, shipjoiners, surveyors, boat builders, tinsmiths, trunkmakers, carriage painters and trimmers, and glovecutters. Blacksmiths, boilermakers, carpenters, and bricklayers run very close together in the number of native and foreign born citizens.

RULES OF TRADES UNIONS CONCERNING APPRENTICES.

It is the fashion to rail at trades unions because many of them limit the number of apprentices. In some instances this is no doubt well deserved, but in the majority of trades it is simply a step in the direction of elevating the standard of the craft. They must in some way protect themselves against workshops being filled with boys who learn little, and are only used for the convenience and profit of selfish employers. Every mechanic knows he has not much to fear from those skilled in his own trade. But he does fear the botches, the boys who worked at the trade but did not learn it. In the absence of apprentice laws, workingmen are compelled to throw around their trade certain restrictions to protect it from utter demoralization.

The present state of affairs has a tendency to reduce wages by filling our industries with incompetent workmen. A limitation upon the number of apprentices has always existed by custom of the craft. The number that should be taken must be affected, to a large extent, by the general principles of the demand and supply of labor. In France, in the seventeenth century, masters were limited to one apprentice. In England, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, apprentices became so numerous that when they became workmen they were so unskilled that some crafts were utterly ruined. Laws were passed, from time to time, limiting the number of apprentices in the trades and crafts, some to two apprentices, some to the sons of master workmen and employers, and some to the sons of persons who had three pounds sterling annual rental. It is the law of self-preservation to the craft that there should be some limitation to the number of apprentices. If the number is unlimited, unscrupulous contractors secure a large number of apprentices, and, with the help of a few journeymen, underbid all who employ only the skilled in their craft. This necessarily throws upon the trade large additions of unskilled workmen, thereby making the supply of labor in excess of the demand, besides impairing the standard of the craft for good work. With mechanics it is not a question as to whether everybody shall have the right to learn a trade, but whether the craft will teach every boy who applies a trade to its own injury. They have to protect themselves from being flooded by incompetent journeymen and by boy and girl labor. By reference to my report of an investigation into the condition of printers, it will be seen that some printing houses were run chiefly by boy and girl labor, and the number of apprentices was outrageously disproportionate to the number of journeymen employed. The number of trades in which the class called "helpers" are employed is increasing every year. These "helpers" have learned a slight knowledge of the business, and, earning only apprentices' wages, are glad of the opportunity to work on their own account at reduced journeymen wages. Employers take advantage of this floating, nondescript class of labor, and advertise extensively for young men and boys with some knowledge of, or who have had one or two years' experience in, the business. A few samples of the many advertisements of this charac-

ter, which daily appear, have been taken from the San Francisco papers, and are here submitted:

ADVERTISEMENTS FOR "HELP" WITH EXPERIENCE.

WANTED--BOY OF 16 TO 18, WHO HAS HAD ONE OR TWO YEARS' EXperience in printing business; good wages and steady place to the right one.

WANTED—YOUNG MAN WITH SOME KNOWLEDGE OF TYPE.

BOY TO SET TYPE; WAGES $4 A WEEK.

AMERICAN BOY, WITH EXPERIENCE IN PRINTING OFFICE; STATE AGE and give reference.

DRUG CLERK WANTED—JUNIOR, WITH TWO YEARS' EXPERIENCE, FOR laboratory work in Market Street store.

BOY WANTED—MUST HAVE SOME EXPERIENCE IN DRUG BUSINESS.

BOY WANTED—FROM 15 TO 18; ONE FAMILIAR WITH DRUG OR SPICE business.

WANTED—BOY TO LEARN THE DRUG BUSINESS; ONE WITH SOME EXperience preferred.

BOYS WANTED—BOYS FROM 16 TO 18; THOSE FAMILIAR WITH SPICE OR extract business preferred.

BOY WANTED WHO UNDERSTANDS FEEDING GORDON PRESS.

PLUMBERS' HELPERS; WAGES $6 TO $9 PER WEEK.

TINSMITH; ALSO BOY WITH SOME EXPERIENCE.

GOOD TINSMITH AND PLUMBER'S HELPER WANTED.

WANTED—YOUNG BARBER WITH EXPERIENCE.

BOY WITH SOME EXPERIENCE AT BARBER TRADE.

WANTED—A BOY WHO UNDERSTANDS A LITTLE ABOUT HOUSE PAINTing and stage work.

WANTED—YOUNG MAN IN PAPER BOX FACTORY; WITH EXPERIENCE preferred.

WANTED—A YOUNG MAN WHO HAS HAD SOME EXPERIENCE IN THE piano business.

WANTED—A YOUNG MAN ABOUT 18 YEARS OLD, WITH SOME EXPERIence in French kid cutting.

WANTED—A YOUNG MAN HAVING SOME KNOWLEDGE OF WATCH making; good chance to finish.

EXPERIENCED BOY WANTED AT CANDY FACTORY; STEADY JOB.

WANTED—YOUNG MAN WITH SOME EXPERIENCE IN MOLDING, FOR A zinc foundry.

In reading over these advertisements one would be likely to imagine that it was the dread that the American boy would never be afforded the opportunity of becoming a mechanic which induced these philanthropic individuals to give him the chance to become one.

The employer who advertises for a "boy of sixteen to eighteen who has had one or two years' experience in the printing business," wants him not for the purpose of giving him a chance to complete his knowledge of the craft, but to take a man's place at the case or press. In another of the foregoing advertisements a young man having "some" knowledge of watch-

making is offered a "good chance to finish." This appears most kind and disinterested on its face, but when the young man looked for apprentices he will find he is wanted to do a journeyman's work at boy's wages, and the "good chance to finish" will come in the "sweet bye and bye."

In one advertisement a boy is wanted who understands feeding a Gordon press, and in another, a "boy" who understands a little about house painting and stage work. Men would not do for they would want men's wages. Boys are in demand who could take the places of men at half or one third of men's wages. It is advertisements such as these which seduce boys from the shop where they are learning a trade only to become roadescript laborers or tomad mechanics. For the sake of a dollar or two extra per week they will leave the employer under whom they were acquiring a thorough knowledge of the trade, and thus throw away the only chance they will probably ever have of becoming skilled mechanics. There are some parts of nearly every mechanical trade which almost anybody after some practice can do, and a class of shiftless fellows without the grit or energy to learn a trade thoroughly, because they know these parts, imagine they are mechanics. They have learned to saw and plane a board, to drive a nail, and to mortise a joint, and they are at once carpenters. They have learned to spread the mortar and to lay the brick straight and build a wall plumb three or four feet high, and think themselves brickmasons. Such fellows, when they assume the position of mechanic, spoil much work, live and die a botch, join the "scab" ranks, and bring discredit not only upon themselves but upon the craft to which they claim to belong.

LIMITING OF APPRENTICES BY TRADES UNIONS.

While the effort to shut this class out from the privileges of the trades unions is just and proper, the arbitrary and ill-liberal rules of some trades regarding the admission of apprentices cannot but react injuriously upon themselves. If American youths are debarred from the opportunity of learning certain trades by the narrow-minded, selfish course of the members, foreign workmen will be brought in to supply the ever increasing demand.

Not long ago a large firm in San Francisco, engaged in iron work, was forced to engage foreign workmen in order to fill their contracts. "This would not be necessary," said one member of the firm, "if the boys here had been allowed the chance to learn the business."

The action of some trades unions towards the close limitation of apprenticeship is of the same character as the combinations and trusts which are now spreading over the country. They, also, limit the supply, stop the production, and corner the market, in order to enhance the value of the commodities on hand. The schemes by which the prices of certain manufactures, and of sugar, lumber, coal, etc., are kept up, to the injury of the consumer and the benefit of the wealthy speculator, rest on the same foundation as those by which certain crafts corner the supply of labor. Of course, one class has as much right to do these things as another, upon the principle that all is fair in business as in war.

Unfortunately, the evils of limiting the number of apprentices extend beyond the inconvenience of the masters of establishments or the suffering induced by the increase of the prices of productions, for the question arises, What shall become of the boys who formerly served apprenticeship under master mechanics? How is to be brought about and maintained the balance in the community between skilled and unskilled labor—between those who add to the value of material by industry and art, and those who, though employed, add nothing to the general stock, and, too

often, finding their small abilities unavailable in an honest calling, contrive to use them to the injury of others and the ruin of themselves? This cornering of the labor supply is one of the efficient causes of idle boys on our streets, from sixteen to twenty years of age, who drift around aimlessly until driven to enter upon pursuits which lead to board, lodging, and confinement at the public expense.

In the following circular, addressed to the proprietors and foremen of foundries, the journeymen ironmolders of San Francisco have set forth so lucidly the reasons of the union for setting a limit to the number of apprentices, that their arguments apply equally as well to all other organizations that set a similar limit:

CIRCULAR ADDRESSED TO THE FOUNDRYMEN OF SAN FRANCISCO.

To the Proprietors and Foremen of —— ——:

GENTLEMEN: The increase of apprentices has been so great during the past three years, that at the present time considerable uneasiness is felt by the journeymen ironmolders of this city, who see no brighter prospects ahead than hard labor through life for such wages as conditions compel employers to give. The manner in which these apprentices are being used in many shops has a tendency to keep down the price of labor, and in dull times they are always retained, while journeymen molders, with families to support, are compelled to walk the streets in idleness, or, if employed, forced to work for such wages as bring degradation and poverty to themselves and families. In view of these facts, the Iron Union of North America, as a means of self-preservation, has wisely made a pro rata limit of one apprentice to every eight journeymen molders employed in any shop. For years we have seen this mischief afoot, and permitted it to take what course it might, until now we are compelled to act in the matter or suffer the disastrous results that are sure to follow a continuation of this evil. From carefully gathered facts we find that in your foundry there are at the core bench and on the floors —— apprentices and —— journeymen employed, making one apprentice to every —— journeymen. Knowing how inconvenient and unpleasant it would be for your firm to make the change immediately, and adopt the pro rata limit established by our society, and owing to the fact that we desire, if possible, to live at peace and on good terms with our employers, we have decided not to demand the immediate dismissal of any apprentices from your foundry, but hope and expect that no more will be employed until *time* has made the desired change. We feel in duty bound by our obligation to resist any further increase of apprentices by your firm. This injunction being complied with, the Ironmolders Union will do its utmost to make good mechanics of those now employed, and also assist you to obtain the full benefit of their apprenticeship, with a sincere desire that in the future * * *

By order of the Ironmolders Union, No. —, of ——.

IRONMOLDERS RULES ABOUT APPRENTICES.

The Ironmolders Union of North America has undoubtedly made the strongest and most persistent efforts to control the subject of apprentices in the trade of ironmolding. This is no doubt due to the fact that the organization was originally formed on account of the number of so called apprentices at the trade, not taught by employers, but journeymen forced to employ and teach them; the average in some sections being two apprentices to each journeyman. The organization at its inception (1859) was able to destroy that system, and in its place secured the present apprentice system, the employer hiring the apprentice, and the journeyman using his discretion as to teaching the apprentice. The law of the union on this subject is as follows:

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the several local unions, and each and every member, to use every honorable means to have each and every apprentice to the trade of iron molding legally indentured, and to have such apprentice serve at least four years, and it shall be the duty of each member to assist every indentured apprentice in securing a full knowledge of the trade. And to this end they shall discourage the employment of apprentices by the piece, or the steady employment on any one pattern, job, or piece.

SEC. 2. Any apprentice so indentured and leaving his employer without such indenture being canceled, shall not be permitted to work under the jurisdiction of any union, if in the power of the union to prevent it. And the employer of such apprentice shall receive all reasonable assistance to secure his return. Any apprentice so indentured shall not be permitted to become a member of this union, except upon presentation of his indentures for examination, or a certificate from his employer.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of each union, when an employer refuses to have his apprentices indentured or to serve four years, to do all in his power to restrict the employment of such apprentices to the following ratio: One apprentice to the shop, and one for every eight molders employed.

SHUTTING OUT THE AMERICAN BOY.

There is one feature of this limitation of apprentices which appears most objectionable. It is giving an alien a voice or a vote in a trades union in excluding an American boy from the privilege of learning a trade. Suppose the case of a foreign born mechanic who has not been a year in the United States, and who cannot speak our language, who has not declared his intentions of becoming a citizen of the United States, but has become a member of a trades union. Is it right that he should have the power to decide by his vote whether an American boy should be admitted as an apprentice or not?

If excluded by the rules of any union from the opportunity of learning a trade for which his tastes incline, some other channel should be open to him to learn the same. It should not only be the privilege, but the right of every American boy who is otherwise qualified, to have the means afforded him to learn any trade for which he has a taste. Of course the above is only a suppositious case, but it is one which is possible to occur in organizations whose rules do not exclude non-citizens from the right to vote.

The following table shows that out of forty-eight trade organizations only fourteen, or less than one third, have rules or regulations relating to apprentices or limiting their number. The bricklayers is the first of these on the list. They limit the number to two apprentices to each master mason or employer, no matter how many mechanics he may have in his employ, and they must be the sons of bricklayers. Another rule they have is that "the right of any person to take an apprentice, except a master mason, will not be recognized by this association." Under this rule, it would appear that a journeyman bricklayer is not allowed to teach his trade to his own son, unless he could be one of the two allowed to the master mason who employs him. The calker's rule is still more stringent, as they allow only one to each employer. The cigarmakers limit the number to one to each shop, and one to ten men; the glassblowers, one to fifteen men; the patternmakers, one to four; the ironmolders, one to each shop and one to eight men; the coopers, one son to each member; the tailors, one to each member, regardless of relationship; the hatters allow two in every shop, and the stonecutters the same number in every yard; the woodcarvers, one to a shop, and two, if six or more men are employed.

TABLE CC.

Showing Trades Unions Apprentice Regulations.

Name of Organization.	Number of Apprentices Allowed by Union.	Term of Apprenticeship.	Weekly Wages.			
			First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Bakers National Union, Journeymen	No regulation or limit	Three years to learn				
Bakers, Cake and Confectionery (German)	No regulation or limit					
Brewery Employés Union of Pacific Coast	No regulation or limit	Three to five years to learn				
Brick Handlers Protective Union	No regulation or limit					
Boot and Shoemakers White Labor League	No regulation or limit					
Bookbinders Union	No regulation or limit					
Butchers, Journeymen of Pacific Coast	No regulation or limit					
Bricklayers Association of San Francisco	Two to each employer	Four years	$4 00	$10 00	$15 00	$18 00
Bag and Satchel Makers	One to every six men in a shop	Three years	2 50	4 00	8 00	
Boilermakers and Iron Ship Builders	No regulation or limit	Four years	3 00	9 00	12 00	15 00
Brewers and Malsters of Pacific Coast	No regulation or limit	Three to five years to learn				
Barbers Protective	No regulation or limit	Four years to learn				
Calkers Association of San Francisco	One to each "boss"	Three years				
Cane and Willow Workers	No regulation or limit	One year				
Cigarmakers, International	One to each shop; then one to ten men; in no shop more than three	Three years				
Coopers, Journeymen (English)	One son of each member	Four years to learn	3 00	4 00	5 00	6 00
Coopers of Pacific Coast (German)		Four years to learn	5 00	6 00	8 00	10 00
Coremakers Union, No. 1, of San Francisco	No regulation or limit	Three years	4 00	8 00	12 00	
Candymakers Protective Union	No regulation or limit	Three years to learn	5 00	7 00	9 00	
Dry Goods Men's Association	No regulation or limit					
Engineers, Stationary, of Pacific Coast	No regulation or limit	Must have three years' experience				
Engineers, Marine	No regulation or limit	Must have two years' sea experience				
Furniture Workers, International	No regulation or limit					
Glovers Union	No regulation or limit	According to proficiency	3 50	6 00	8 00	
Glass Blowers	One to every fifteen journeymen	Three years				
Harnessmakers	No regulation or limit	Four years				
Hatters Association	Two in every shop	Four years	2 50	3 00	4 00	5 00
Horseshoers Association	No regulation or limit	Four years				
Ironmolders	One to a shop; then one to eight members	Four years				
Jewelers Protective Union	No regulation or limit	Five years				
Lasters Association	No regulation or limit	Four years				

TABLE C C—Continued.

NAME OF ORGANIZATION.	Number of Apprentices Allowed by Union.	Term of Apprenticeship.	WEEKLY WAGES.			
			First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Musicians Mutual Protective	No regulation or limit	Must pass examination				
Machinist	No regulation or limit	Four years				
Pressmen's Union of San Francisco	No regulation or limit					
Painters, Fresco	No regulation or limit					
Painters, Journeymen	No regulation or limit	Three years				
Patternmakers	One to every four journeymen	Three to four years	$4 00	$6 00	$8 00	$10 00
Pavers Union	No regulation or limit					
Packers, Cigar, International Union	One to every three packers	Three years				
Shipwrights Association	No regulation or limit	Three years	3 00	6 00	8 00	
Ship and Steamboat Joiners	No regulation or limit	Four years				
Stonecutters	Two in each yard	Four years				
Typographical Union*		Four years				
Tailors Protective	One to each member					
Wood Carvers	One to a shop, and two, if six or more men are employed	Four years				
Wharf Builders	No regulation or limit					
Upholsterers, Carpet	No regulation or limit	Two years	5 00			

* Evening papers, one to ten journeymen; weekly, one to five; morning papers, one to fifteen journeymen; job houses, one to four. No apprentices allowed to work by piece.

WAGES OF APPRENTICES.

As can be seen by the table very few unions have any regulations about wages. This is owing to the want of an apprentice law, for if a boy does not like the wages he leaves his employer, who has not the power to prevent him. It is the custom then to leave the question of wages in the hands of the employer. In some trades boys must serve the first three months gratis, after which they are generally paid $3 a week for the remainder of the year, and advanced $1 each year. In others they get $3 a week for the first six months, and are then advanced $1 per week, and so on every recurring six months. The first consideration for our boys is not the question of how much they are going to be taught in any trade, but how much wages they are going to be paid. In olden times a boy had to pay a fee for being taught instead of being paid while learning, but now the learning part is sunk and the question of pay is uppermost. The result is the boy gets his pay for what he is worth and learns little or nothing. This is a most mischievous and short-sighted policy on the part of those who look to the amount of wages as the main inducement of entering certain establishments, instead of the facilities afforded for becoming thorough mechanics.

Parents are often guilty of almost criminal folly in apprenticing their children in places where they can earn $3 or $4 per week, but where no pains will be taken to give them a knowledge of the business.

LABOR IMMIGRATION FROM EUROPE.

The following tables show the number of immigrants from Europe received into the United States from 1873 to 1886, inclusive, classified according to occupations, etc.

Considerably more than half a million, or five hundred and eighty-seven thousand three hundred and forty-nine, skilled laborers arrived in the United States during that period of fourteen years, or at the rate of about forty-two thousand per year. Of this number we received from Germany, one hundred and seventy-nine thousand eight hundred and eighty-five, or 30 per cent; and from Great Britain and Ireland, one hundred and eighty-two thousand five hundred and eleven, or 31 per cent. The total immigration during the same period was more than five millions, so that the proportion of skilled labor was about 10 per cent of the whole.

By referring to the table of the division of the sexes, it will be observed that twenty-eight thousand one hundred and thirty-four, or less than 5 per cent of those classed in the "skilled" occupations, are women, or in the proportion of one woman to nineteen men. Of the number classed "without occupation," one million eight hundred and one thousand nine hundred and eighty-five, or about 70 per cent, are females.

TABLE Y. No. 2.

Total Immigration from Europe from 1873 to 1886, inclusive, Classified by Occupation.

Year.	Professional.	Skilled.	Miscellaneous.	Occupation not Stated.	Without Occupation.	Total.
1873	2,980	48,792	168,724	4,868	234,439	459,803
1874	2,477	38,700	117,041	4,233	150,889	313,339
1875	2,426	33,803	84,546	1,291	105,432	227,498
1876	2,400	24,200	72,275	910	70,201	169,986
1877	1,885	21,006	55,650	673	62,643	141,857
1878	1,510	16,531	57,806	738	61,884	138,469
1879	1,639	21,362	73,053	897	80,875	177,826
1880	1,773	49,929	188,109	2,194	215,252	457,257
1881	2,812	66,457	244,492	8,140	347,530	669,431
1882	2,992	72,664	310,501	10,619	392,210	788,992
1883	2,450	62,505	216,549	46,660	275,658	603,322
1884	2,284	55,061	184,195	31,665	245,387	518,592
1885	2,097	39,817	141,702	15,398	196,332	395,346
1886	2,078	36,522	137,651	496	157,456	334,203
Totals	31,803	587,349	2,052,294	128,782	2,596,188	5,396,416

TABLE D D.

Total Immigration from Europe from 1873 to 1886, inclusive, Classified by Sexes.

Years.	Occupations.					
	Professional.	Skilled.	Miscellaneous.	Not Stated.	Without.	Total.
Males.						
1873	2,741	47,490	152,581	1,371	71,609	275,792
1874	2,137	37,301	104,511	1,054	44,222	189,225
1875	2,147	32,014	73,732	255	31,802	139,950
1876	2,182	23,015	65,579	341	20,669	111,786
1877	1,674	20,144	50,116	287	19,812	92,033
1878	1,375	15,806	51,409	138	17,531	86,259
1879	1,515	20,728	65,801	294	23,544	111,882
1880	1,704	48,787	178,784	1,206	57,142	287,623
1881	2,563	64,744	225,524	7,262	110,636	410,729
1882	2,865	68,745	288,221	9,689	129,294	498,814
1883	2,265	56,840	188,375	26,174	90,209	363,863
1884	2,184	50,905	160,159	19,778	75,483	308,509
1885	1,930	37,407	121,564	8,950	56,531	226,382
1886	1,943	35,289	117,546	201	45,725	200,704
Females.						
1873	239	1,302	16,143	3,497	162,830	184,011
1874	339	1,399	12,530	3,179	106,667	124,114
1875	279	1,789	10,814	1,036	73,630	87,548
1876	218	1,185	6,696	569	49,532	58,200
1877	211	862	5,534	386	42,831	49,824
1878	135	725	6,397	600	44,353	52,210
1879	124	634	7,252	603	57,331	65,944
1880	69	1,142	9,325	988	158,110	169,634
1881	249	1,713	18,968	878	236,894	258,702
1882	127	3,919	22,280	930	262,922	290,178
1883	185	5,665	27,674	20,486	185,449	239,459
1884	100	4,156	24,036	11,887	169,904	210,083
1885	167	2,410	20,138	6,448	139,801	168,964
1886	135	1,233	20,105	295	111,731	133,499

Total Both Sexes.

1873	459,803	1878	138,469	1883	603,322
1874	313,339	1879	177,826	1884	518,592
1875	227,498	1880	457,257	1885	395,346
1876	169,986	1881	669,431	1886	334,203
1877	141,857	1882	788,992		

TABLE E E.

Immigration from Europe, by Occupation, from 1873 to 1886, inclusive.

Occupation.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.
Actors	39	93	111	88	148	51	41	22	116	55	189	38	94	73
Artists	111	157	105	146	92	81	144	189	340	217	143	142	126	165
Clergymen	334	445	366	417	373	319	320	269	387	418	309	231	259	269
Editors	16	21	9	42	66	13	21	32	81	61	23	21	25	32
Engravers	133	54	89	106	97	26	61	28	140	82	60	75	57	49
Lawyers	114	97	126	76	66	37	39	46	70	102	83	47	53	92
Musicians	559	572	500	421	320	396	341	399	430	543	334	555	377	367
Physicians	182	159	187	177	119	91	125	183	142	264	118	160	176	165
Sculptors	21	22	28	29	43	19	43	59	96	132	119	133	96	84
Teachers	370	482	378	301	185	199	203	211	348	479	454	445	408	353
All others (not stated)	1,101	374	527	597	376	278	301	335	662	639	618	437	426	429
Total professional	2,980	2,476	2,426	2,400	1,885	1,510	1,639	1,773	2,812	2,992	2,450	2,284	2,097	2,878
Accountants, etc.	46	50	154	89	109	97	105	184	256	182	156	162	113	129
Bakers	1,398	1,030	730	640	507	464	636	1,377	2,264	2,453	2,331	1,971	1,465	1,209
Barbers and hairdressers	228	192	240	156	142	113	141	248	409	478	554	495	371	355
Blacksmiths	1,894	1,461	1,267	816	787	673	911	2,311	3,986	4,099	2,804	2,508	1,819	1,420
Brewers	544	743	374	284	241	350	236	617	956	955	885	984	609	382
Butchers	1,346	979	582	521	489	645	710	1,138	1,998	2,269	2,102	2,059	1,391	1,190
Cabinetmakers	122	99	145	114	109	173	358	1,574	1,882	731	118	109	92	114
Carpenters and joiners	6,406	4,354	3,383	2,631	1,730	1,876	2,759	8,234	11,481	11,900	8,662	7,216	4,392	3,678
Clerks	2,324	1,547	1,414	1,385	1,253	1,340	1,724	2,860	3,189	3,412	3,387	3,518	3,413	3,027
Coopers	601	356	431	325	265	287	147	453	544	478	540	353	188	158
Dressmakers	230	241	216	218	229	179	287	338	398	667	686	609	421	363
Engineers	719	696	558	562	515	355	630	1,329	1,216	1,299	1,079	962	770	798
Gardeners	538	371	399	421	331	239	260	377	957	917	981	887	599	523
Glaziers	80	91	59	57	78	41	31	82	244	190	209	142	111	118
Iron workers	1,482	671	550	384	268	79	153	528	438	419	309	354	291	413
Jewelers	243	217	291	160	174	117	125	272	317	295	200	189	165	154
Locksmiths	297	237	200	192	202	349	141	198	642	840	1,230	967	554	389
Machinists	358	268	475	261	292	284	208	592	641	375	191	232	366	202
Mariners	1,862	1,934	2,056	1,224	1,329	871	905	1,458	1,589	1,911	1,844	1,742	1,477	1,803
Masons	4,293	4,478	2,650	1,713	1,303	642	671	2,033	3,203	4,279	2,959	2,562	1,893	1,835
Mechanics (not stated)	2,242	899	471	404	268	343	786	3,309	4,109	4,325	4,156	2,534	2,019	1,886
Millers	573	419	243	197	186	163	206	442	842	1,027	876	839	570	439

TABLE E.E—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.
Miners	5,716	4,926	4,055	2,237	1,670	1,578	2,588	6,086	5,204	6,485	4,743	3,794	2,940	3,469
Painters	1,055	564	585	440	386	252	450	838	1,342	1,422	1,197	1,306	929	774
Plasterers	151	204	49	436	110	21	40	90	329	284	163	173	99	203
Plumbers	285	158	103	98	67	21	42	143	185	238	231	172	163	180
Printers	317	284	397	152	151	86	165	208	371	569	399	357	321	251
Saddlers and harnessmakers	354	405	233	136	73	135	126	219	441	529	470	464	285	265
Seamstresses	350	414	464	287	236	365	166	379	685	475	628	567	517	438
Shipwrights	314	1,503	539	103	399	170	108	571	238	155	90	94	86	17
Shoemakers	2,411	1,639	1,265	898	680	777	1,119	1,849	3,967	4,366	3,203	2,931	2,150	1,681
Spinners	270	170	192	110	72	83	95	210	405	2,431	3,589	2,646	1,000	293
Stonecutters	529	298	644	299	529	158	113	328	433	551	470	481	341	323
Tailors	2,393	1,397	1,463	969	668	815	1,062	2,134	3,106	3,748	3,235	3,317	2,228	2,682
Tanners and curriers	144	142	146	108	161	78	100	171	272	313	336	202	151	128
Tinners	327	341	278	215	156	91	105	157	402	346	347	568	323	192
Tobacco manufacturers	675	544	713	384	425	317	478	515	1,684	1,045	675	1,506	1,360	1,160
Watch and clock	234	158	154	158	159	113	149	269	344	443	404	364	306	307
Weavers	1,357	892	776	454	354	292	515	1,499	1,689	1,643	1,679	1,359	1,006	989
Wheelwrights	235	109	94	94	109	23	30	144	275	239	291	229	130	107
All others (not stated)	3,849	3,219	4,765	3,889	3,793	1,476	1,581	4,135	3,524	3,881	4,106	3,097	2,393	2,478
Total skilled	48,792	38,700	33,803	24,200	21,006	16,531	21,362	49,929	66,457	72,764	62,505	55,061	39,817	36,522
Agents, factors	119	107	59	70	46	34	66	52	122	159	123	136	125	139
Bankers	32	21	23	29	36	24	28	13	33	56	12	18	60	24
Cooks	293	215	284	231	157	241	226	220	450	539	434	271	312	314
Farmers	36,983	28,775	16,447	14,536	13,188	14,843	19,907	47,204	58,028	61,888	39,048	42,050	27,585	20,600
Grocers	300	198	161	187	215	119	104	240	293	368	362	246	236	232
Hotel keepers	104	56	80	158	131	81	143	103	157	144	334	769	416	109
Laborers	104,423	65,895	46,877	38,847	25,482	26,656	36,897	105,012	147,816	209,605	136,071	106,478	83,068	86,853
Merchants	7,038	5,259	4,706	4,519	4,239	4,217	4,861	7,508	8,766	9,375	7,449	6,522	5,870	5,733
Servants	16,259	12,427	10,579	6,493	5,158	6,157	6,804	18,580	19,342	23,010	27,988	24,249	20,213	20,198
Shepherds	231	129	69	31	38	44	34	60	486	312	214	190	81	49
All others (not stated)	2,942	3,959	5,261	7,174	6,960	5,390	3,983	9,117	8,999	5,045	4,014	3,266	3,736	3,400
Total miscellaneous	168,724	117,041	84,546	72,275	55,650	57,806	73,053	188,109	244,492	310,501	216,049	184,195	141,702	137,551

GRAND MASTER POWDERLY ON APPRENTICESHIP.

T. V. Powderly, Esq., of Scranton, Pennsylvania, Grand Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, in an article headed "Settle the Apprenticeship Question by Inaugurating Industrial Schools," says:

From a paper before me I take the following paragraph. It appears to furnish food for reflection and study:

> A very serious question confronts the American youth under the existing restrictive system of apprenticeship. What is to become of the millions of boys who, having finished going to school, are looking about for something to do?

This subject is worthy of the best thought of the most profound thinkers of our time, and I make bold to discuss it briefly, in the hope that my words, which, at best, will serve but as an introduction, may cause others to take up the question itself for discussion.

Have we a restrictive system of apprenticeship in the United States? I fail to find it in operation in many of the trades and callings, and in many others it exists only in name. Its effect on limiting the number of apprentices is scarcely felt in the trade. It is frequently urged that the restrictive system of apprenticeship is driving the American youth from the skilled callings; that the native born is being driven from the workshop to make room for the workmen of foreign birth. It is held by many that the trade union is to blame for this state of affairs; that the American labor organization is inimical to the interests of the American workman. When the mechanic worked steadily for six days in the week to perform a certain amount of work by hand, it was necessary for him to know the use of tools; in order to fit himself for the performance of such a task he had to bind himself to the employer for a term of years, during which time he was taught the rudiments of his trade. He worked for a pittance in the hope of one day being able to take his place at the bench as a journeyman. It made no difference whether he learned the machinist, blacksmith, molding, cooper, or shoemaking trade, they were all hard to acquire, and the mechanics of twenty or fifteen years ago had to learn the whole trade in order to take his proper place by the side of other mechanics when out of his time and upon the road as a journeyman. At present it is waste of time to bind a boy to any of these trades, or to any particular trade, for the reason that they are all subdivided to such an extent that men are set to work on special pieces on entering the workshop, and remain in that particular subdivision during their term of service. The chief aim of the employer in engaging apprentices is to secure the assistance of cheap help on work that it is not necessary to employ competent mechanics to perform. The opposition of the mechanic to a number of apprentices is that the market may not find too many craftsmen in search of employment; under such conditions wages must have a downward tendency.

An apprentice in 1888 does not enter upon the trade as the apprentice of 1858 did. In 1858 the apprentice learned all of the "arts and mysteries" of the trade, while the beginner of to-day is placed at a machine and is apt to be kept at it during his entire term of apprenticeship. If he is skillful, and manipulates that machine to good advantage, he is more likely to be of better service to his employer than if he were allowed to take turns at all the different branches of the trade; but when his term expires he is of but little use as a mechanic, for should he apply to another employer for a situation, he may not be lucky enough to find employment at a machine similar to the one at which he served his term, and if he is not so employed, he will have to wait till a vacancy occurs, or tramp.

During the period from 1859 to 1875 trades unionism flourished more than at any other time in our history; it was during that period that the greatest opposition to an unlimited number of apprentices was manifested by the mechanics of the United States. During that same period the employers of labor learned to go to foreign lands to secure the services of mechanics who would engage to take the places of the American workmen. The employer was not forced to go abroad for workmen, but he regarded the trade society as a foreign institution, and would not recognize it in dealing with his employés. He was inconsistent, however, in going to Europe for workmen who were none the less foreign because he imported them.

During the past ten years, which may justly be styled the decade of the iron man, the importation of foreign workmen by employers was practiced on a most extensive scale. During this same period trades unionism languished in the United States and played but a small part in dictating to employers how many apprentices they should engage; yet employers imported foreign laborers in such numbers as to arouse the American workmen to a sense of danger, when they began to rebuild their shattered organizations, in which work they were encouraged by the Knights of Labor, the latter organization having secured the passage of a law which, although frequently violated by employers, has for its object the prohibition of the importation of foreign labor under contract. The argument that trades unionism is to blame for the presence of so many foreign born mechanics in our workshops is not worthy of consideration. The truth plainly stated is, that every foreigner who is to-day at work in the workshops of the United States is here because he believed he could improve his condition by coming, or is here because he was induced to come by some agent, or bureau, in the interest of the employers of labor in the United States.

It is neither profitable nor encouraging to learn a trade when the chances are that some morning the mechanic will awake to find a machine standing in his place doing the work which he performed the day before. Inventions have been introduced so rapidly and extensively during the last ten years that many trades have been almost revolutionized. This rapid introduction of machinery has had a tendency to depress wages; the reduction in wages and the lack of security in workshop management has been the cause of sending many a boy to college who would have gone into the workshop after passing through the routine of the common public school.

Americans believe that they live in the best country in the world; the workman being imbued with that sentiment believes that he should receive the best wages in the world. The employer, who may be as proud of his country as the workman, when it comes to a question of employing an American because he is a countryman, or securing the services of cheap workmen, will cast his lot with the foreign workman and the dollars-and-cents side of the question. The foreign workman, not knowing what his services ought to bring in this land, will step in the shoes of the American workman who received from $2 50 to $3 a day, and be recompensed at a rate not exceeding $1 50 or $1 75 a day. Having lived where it was necessary to practice the most rigid economy, he brings his economical habits and ideas with him, and for a time he can exist on the wages paid him.

We also find the manufactories of the United States being operated as though they were the property of one management. The tendency is to bring them under one common head through the agency of the "trust." Independence on the part of the workman is being crushed out, for he has only to work in one mill, workshop, or factory in one part of the country and he becomes known all over. This system, although in its infancy,

bids fair to become so perfected that it will be impossible for a man to work in any part of the country if his last employer is dissatisfied with him. The tendency throughout for the past few years has been to discourage the American youth when he sought to learn a trade. He is unwilling to spend years in acquiring knowledge which may never be of service to him. The colleges and universities are full to overflowing, and soon the professions will be as crowded as the trades are to-day.

This is an age of revolution and evolution. It is the most marvelous age the world has ever witnessed, and nothing that has gone before can be compared to it, or cited as an indication of what is to follow. We cannot with any degree of accuracy predict anything for the future; we grope and fear to risk too much, lest some new invention completely upsets all our plans and gives the winning hand to another. We find American youths unwilling to learn trades because they do not bring rich rewards or assurances of stability of employment. There is a fascination about the large cities which they did not bear some years ago, and, taking it altogether, we find ourselves in a state of transition almost impossible to describe. What the man of ante bellum days regarded as a luxury is to-day an absolute necessity. Take a look at the room in which you sit when this is read and contrast it with what your surroundings would have been in 1858, just thirty years ago; note the changes which time has worked, not alone in the appearance of the room, but in that of its occupants. Once we put a little oil in a saucer, hung a rag over the edge, struck the flints together and ignited the rag. With such a light our reading and sewing were done. Then we ran the tallow into the mold and made the candle; we next ran the fluid into the lamp, and stood back in awe to see it burn; after that gas began to work its way beneath our sidewalks and into our sitting rooms; then the old Drake farm was tapped, and the world was astounded to find itself burning the product of the earth after the refiner changed its color. Then we said, we can go no farther, and found our words were contradicted by a glare of light which almost rivaled the noonday sun, and electricity flashed itself into favor. [At eleven o'clock at night I saw a man painting a sign on Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, without the aid of lamp or torch; electricity answered every purpose.]

Ten short years ago we wrote our letter, or, if we were in a hurry, we telegraphed to our friends; to-day we call up the exchange and talk across cities and counties. Soon States will be traversed by the sound of the human voice. To-day we talk into a funnel, and not only are the words recorded, but the very sound and quiver of the voice is faithfully preserved, to be repeated as often as may be required at any time during our lives or after death. We stop and ask, What next? The answer comes with the rapidity of lightning from some quarter of the universe in the shape of a new invention. What has this to do with the American youth? Everything, for we must devote more time to him than heretofore, so that he may not, Micawber like, stand in idleness waiting for something to turn up. Let us turn it up for him by inaugurating a system of industrial schools in which the arts, the sciences, and trades will be taught. Surely the American youth is worthy of the best that we can do for him, and we should encourage him in his first steps, that his later ones may be for the good of the nation. At the rate at which science is advancing, there will soon be no shoveling of earth, no leveling of hills by hand, no digging of trenches, no cutting of earth, or wood, or iron by hand; all of these things, and all else that enters into the industry of the world, will be done by the aid of science. There will be no trades or tradesmen of any special callings or crafts. In the world's production nothing should be missing, nor

should one man have an advantage over another which nature does not give him. We will have men of no particular trade, but all men will know all crafts; not the "Jack of all trades," but a far different being who knows all trades well. Every schoolroom should be a workshop, a laboratory, and an art gallery. At present a trade learned is a trade lost, for the learner does not have an opportunity to practice but one part of his calling, and if thrown out of that one groove cannot fall into another. Under an industrial system of schooling every American youth will know sufficient of all trades to step into whatever opens itself to him, and he will not be forced by circumstances to stand in the way of another who is anxious to rise, but will be fitted to take a step forward at a moment's notice. He will always find work to do, and will do it more rapidly, with better tools, and for a greater reward than the artisan of the present. The unsettled conditions which now make trades unionism a necessity will vanish, and in that age there will be but one organization necessary—the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man.

PART V.

MANUAL AND TECHNICAL TRAINING.

CHAPTER I.

MANUAL TRAINING.

From what has been said about apprenticeship, it is evident that as it has gone out of the fashion, something else must take its place, or, if not, how shall we supply our workshops, and who shall take the places of the artisans of to-day? It is of no use trying to bring back the old style of long term apprenticeship.

The American youth of the present day will not submit to compulsion and supervision at the hands of any master, and the business of our Courts would be clogged with cases of "employers versus runaway apprentices," if the latter were bound by iron-clad indentures. Our boys, and our girls, too, want a place where they can earn wages from the start, and when they have acquired a "smattering" knowledge of the trade will look out for another place where they can get higher wages. Employers are also adverse to legal and personal responsibility for apprentices, and are careful to insert a clause in every contract or indenture which relieves them from the responsibility of instructing their apprentices personally. What substitute then can be found for a system which is no longer acceptable to employer, parent, guardian, boy, or girl? Are we to look to foreign countries for skilled workmen in the various branches of mechanics and arts, and, if not, by what means can we train our youth in them?

This is the question which is now agitating the minds of educators, statesmen, publicists, and of all interested in the welfare of our youth. There is a consensus of opinion as to the necessity of some practical system which shall fit young people for the way to earn a living and carve out a prosperous career.

The present system of education is strongly biased in favor of professional and literary pursuits, to which there would be no objection were every man's vocation in life law, medicine, theology, or other kindred vocations.

But the great majority of youth are not intended for these callings. They must earn their bread by the sweat of their brow and be producers. The professions and clerical employments are overstocked, and many of them earn very precarious livings, waiting, Micawber like, for something to turn up. The condition of our girls especially is deplorable. Many of them have been brought up to look down upon labor, and their only hope is in marrying a man who can provide for them. Not five per cent of them are taught any skilled trade. If the hand and eye were educated as well as the head during school time, children would be taught to respect labor. The principal reason why the professional man is looked up to and respected, is because the former is something outside of his pursuit. He

is generally a man of culture, while the mechanic is the contrary. There should be as much honor and credit attached to the making of a fine piece of cabinet work as the drawing up of a bill of exceptions, but very few people think so. They are apt to associate in their minds the use of tools with dirty face and hands, and never stop to consider what creative powers may be behind these. We have High Schools, Normal Schools, Colleges, and a State University, to all of which State aid is extended with a lavish hand, for preparing youth, male and female, for the learned professions.

If a boy or a girl wishes to become a lawyer, doctor, etc., the road is clear and open before them without any demand for toll on the way. Inducements are held out to them in the way of prizes, scholarships, etc.

But if some boy or girl wished instead to become a skilled artisan, to acquire a knowledge of how to design, and how to decorate, and make beautiful articles out of wood and metal, they would not know which way to turn. The State has made no provision for preparing the would be mechanic to start upon his career well made up. The would be professional leaves school with a good stock of necessaries for his journey, but the embryo mechanic goes out of doors with empty knapsack. It was owing to the foresight and philanthropy of a private individual, Doctor Cogswell, that the boys and girls of San Francisco have an institution where they can be fitted out with a well stocked budget of mixed mental and manual provisions.

GOVERNOR BARTLETT ON MANUAL TRAINING.

Our late deeply lamented Governor, Washington Bartlett, with that keen perception of the necessities of the times and tender solicitude for the advancement of the children of the State which characterized him, brought the subject to the attention of the Legislature in his inaugural address in these words:

I desire to call your special attention to that part of the report which refers to work schools, or industrial training. The subject is becoming one of absorbing interest to all good citizens. The success which has followed the establishment of such schools in St. Louis, Chicago, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Boston, and New York, proves that they are meeting a real want in the community.

It is admitted by the more thoughtful and philosophic educators that the present system of public schools is based too largely on the old scholastic systems of learning. Our most scholarly men, the educators of our country, from the Presidents and faculties of our universities to the public school teachers, are, from the nature of their position, removed from the active business pursuits of the great mass of the people, and cannot be expected to instruct their pupils in arts and trades of which they themselves have little knowledge or experience. Their education has made them love learning in the abstract more than the sciences, as applied to daily life. Their influence tends to foster a love for books and literary or professional life, so that the majority of their students who are able to graduate, aspire to the professions of law or medicine, or other scholarly pursuits.

The great mass of our public school children are obliged to assist their parents when they leave the grammar schools, so that the primary schools are really of the very greatest importance in their education.

It is generally conceded by those who have studied the subject most thoroughly, that Froebel's method of training all the faculties of the child, is the most perfect of any that has been yet devised.

Hence, it seems to me, that the students of the State Normal Schools should be thoroughly instructed in this system, so that in due time all parts of the State could be supplied with primary teachers, competent to lay the foundation for a thorough education, developing the mechanical and artistic faculties, as well as the purely intellectual.

The efforts already being made by the people for establishing manual and technical schools should also be liberally encouraged. The technical departments of the University should be made as valuable as possible to the people throughout the State. It would be well to offer special inducements to public school students to arouse a greater interest in the industrial arts and sciences.

The vast agricultural, manufacturing, and mining interests of the State need the most enlightened treatment, in order to compete in the markets of the world. It is but just to those who are to conduct these interests in the future that they should be prepared in

as full a measure as possible to meet such great responsibilities. I would suggest, therefore, that your Committee on Education should make a thorough investigation as to the wants of the people in the way of better industrial training, and the best way of meeting those wants.

There would seem to be no limits to the natural resources of bountiful Nature in our State. All we need is skill to develop them. All the governments of Europe are making great efforts to educate their people. Schools of weaving and pottery, of chemical products, of dyeing, of all kinds of manufactures, in fact, are now in successful operation in Germany, Austria, and France. England is following their example.

American laborers are already feeling the presence of sharp competition, so that in self-defense we will soon, as a nation, be compelled to exercise all our powers to meet the requirements of the age and maintain the proud supremacy which American laborers have hitherto held in the world. California has always generously rewarded labor; let us liberally provide now for the best education of the children of laborers, so that our Golden Gate may ever be hospitably open and the white sails of commerce carry, not only grains and fruits, and the raw products of the State, but the ingenious and artistic productions of skillful hands and cultured, fertile intellects.

Our public school system is justly considered one of the noblest features of our great republic.

There is nothing to compare with it in any Government of the world, but this superiority is passing into history, and our educational system of to-day does not come up to our present needs. It does well enough as the first step for those who will enter professional, educational, and commercial pursuits, but there is no provision for the artisan, no hand guiding his course.

The idea is growing stronger, day by day, that public school education should not be limited to what is commonly called "book learning," and that something must be added to prepare our youth for manual labor. European nations that have lagged behind us in popular education are ahead in teaching youth things essential for the future skilled artisan.

The International Exhibition of 1851 opened the eyes of Englishmen to their lack of knowledge in the highest grades of mechanical labor. They saw the exhibits of France, Belgium, Germany, and other countries of Europe, and knew they could not compete with them in work where a high degree of culture was required. With their proverbial pluck and enterprise, they set to work establishing industrial and technical schools, with the result of being able to rival their guides and models.

OBJECTIONS TO MANUAL TRAINING IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Many well meaning people belong to the "doubting Thomas" school, and doubt the feasibility of bringing together such incongruous elements as arithmetic and carpentry, history and blacksmithing. It upsets completely all their old time notions of a set order of business, properly divided between recitations, exercises on the blackboard, writing, and recess. To introduce anything like molding, planing, hammering with nails, etc., would be highly nonsensical, and would demoralize the school.

It may do well enough for mere pastime during recess hours, but, even then, it would only have the effect of taking the mind of the pupil off his book studies.

Besides, they say, "Who is going to teach all this stuff included in manual training?" "A teacher has all he or she can do to master the literary studies required for a diploma without being obliged to know half a dozen different trades." "And how can a teacher, after having her hands dirtied all over with clay after teaching a class how to mold, take up a clean text or copybook in her hands?"

In spite of all these ghosts or fantasies (for such they are found to be in the light of practical experience in the actual working of the manual training school) the work can be done and satisfactorily.

The great economist, Stephen A. Walker, said: "Education of the hand and the eye should go along with *pari passu* the education of the mind. We believe in making good workmen as well as in making educated intellects. We think these are things that can be done at the same time, and our proposition is that they can be done better together than separately."

Among a certain crabbed, narrow minded, "hard shell" class of people, there is a disposition to cavil at any new departure in the line of education.

"Let well enough alone" is their motto. "Our fathers and our grandfathers, our mothers and our grandmothers," they say, "went to the village school and learnt the three R's—reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic—and what was good enough for them ought to be good enough for us." "They were happy and prosperous under the old system and why should not we," and so on? Such people have a mortal dread of "new fangled" ideas.

Another argument against manual training is that the pupils of the public schools are already worked up to the limit of their endurance, and that no addition can be made to the present course of study without violating the ordinance of "cruelty to animals."

The criticism misses completely the point of the argument in favor of manual training, which is that it lightens instead of increasing the burden on the pupil. The change from the book to the bench relieves the monotony of school work, and experience has shown that pupils freely give one or two hours additional of their time to tool work. The workshop gives about as much relief to the manual training pupils as the playground to others. The old system, while it takes up the time of the pupil, does not train all the pupils' faculties. It devotes itself almost entirely to the education of the receptive, and allots very little time to the training of the expressive faculties.

Still another class, with some show of reason, express doubts as to the successful issue of an extension of the public school curriculum in the direction of training the hand and eye. They say the public school teacher has all he can do in educating the mind, and anything outside of that should be done elsewhere. The majority of children leave school before they reach the age of fifteen, and where is the time to instruct them in anything outside of the essentials which are required to befit them for their duties as good citizens. In spite of all these croakers and objectors, the knowledge of the necessity for action, for *immediate* action, is rapidly growing. Modern discoveries and inventions have developed a great many new departments of labor, and public education must keep step with the onward march of improvement in almost every walk of life.

If the children of the working classes can be initiated into the methods of labor, by which afterwards they must earn their living, without interfering with or lessening their usual book studies, it will be a great boon to the rising generation.

That this can be done is conclusively proved by the success attending work in said direction, not only in Europe, but in the United States.

OBJECTIONS ANSWERED.

Professor Woodward, of the St. Louis Manual Training School, stated before the Teachers Convention in San Francisco, that the first five pupils on the list of graduates of the Washington University of St. Louis were pupils who had taken a manual training course. He asserted that instead of retarding a boy or girl in ordinary school work, manual training, on the contrary, gave them an impetus.

Professor J. M. Ordway, of the Tulane High School, New Orleans, speaking of the manual training in his school, says: "The pupils do not lose time which ought to be devoted to intellectual studies, for it is found that without over-exertion they accomplish quite as much in these studies as they did before hand work was introduced. They gain by alternating hand work with pure brain work, and thus resting without being idle."

Mr. James A. Page, of the Dwight Grammar School of Boston, where manual training is successfully practiced, says: "I consider that the results go far to prove that manual training is so great a relief to the iteration of school work that it is a positive benefit, rather than a detriment to the course of other studies."

The "Toledo Blade" newspaper, speaking of the graduating students of the Scott Manual Training School (which forms a complement of the Toledo High School), says: "One remarkable fact is that so many who won honors were students in the Manual Training School. More boys graduated this year than ever before in the history of the school."

I could go on multiplying testimony to the same effect, but the extracts given ought to be sufficient to convince the "Let well enough alone" and "I'm afraid" classes of people, that no harm is likely to ensue from the introduction into our school system of something beyond the book, slate, and pen. It is not intended to supersede these indispensable articles. No advocate of manual training was ever so transported with zeal as to even suggest that the public school should be converted into technical or trades schools, or that books should be driven out by tools. The proposition is to *add to*, not to *take from* the studies and the instruments of study already in use in certain grades of school.

Some persons are afraid of what they call over-education, and look upon manual training as a work of supererogation or accomplishment. In this they are greatly mistaken. Labor Commissioner Charles F. Peck, of New York, says: "To draw is as easy as to write; and, in some sense, as useful. To use tools in a rudimentary way is good for boys, as needlework is for girls. Familiarity with tools of trade is the basis of all mechanical occupations. The children of the poor, in whose behalf the disadvantages of superfluous education is urged, are precisely those who would draw most gain from early mechanical teaching. They *must* use tools; and instead of finding their fingers all thumbs when they take to tools for a living, they have already obtained a notion of their uses, their entrance on life duties is thus made all the easier, and the days for waiting for a chance to turn up are shortened. A youngster who cannot master language or grammar may be smart at figures. Another child who cannot get hold of an abstract idea will brighten up and understand a concrete fact—a picture, a model, or even a map. Artists or artisans often get their best ideas by thought and observation, rather than by verbal teaching. An Edison cannot be made from books and class lessons."

NECESSITY FOR INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

In almost every community the question of technical education has been discussed, and ghost after ghost of doubt and difficulty has been laid by the test of practical experience. "How often," says Professor Woodward, of St. Louis, "has life been a failure from defective education? I have seen poor lawyers who, under a proper system of training, would have made excellent mechanics, and not a few of highly educated, able-bodied men, actually begging for the price of a day's board. I recall one man in particular, who was able to speak several languages, but because no one would

employ him as a linguist, he must needs beg, for he knew not how to work." We want an education which will develop the whole boy or girl, not only the moral and intellectual, but the physical powers, so that they will not enter upon the battle of life "scarce half made up."

"To a certain extent," says Professor Woodward, "we have been whipped over England's back, and, though we have always prided ourselves on our enterprise and smartness as a manufacturing people, and have glorified ourselves not a little over our great system of free public schools, and on our numerous high schools and colleges, we have been forced, not only to go across the Atlantic for the finest specimens of manufactured articles, but to look to Germany and France for guidance in educational matters."

The United States Commissioner of Education, in his report for 1883, says: "Foreign skilled labor ought not to be made a reliance. Our own youth ought to be, and must be trained to occupy leading places in the arts and manufactures by means of special instruction given in schools organized for the purpose. Any system of schools or instruction which fits pupils to enter upon the duties of life and the work of a trade, promotes the practical education of the industrial classes."

In his report for 1885–86 he says: "Interest in the subject of manual training has shown no abatement during the year. Distinct progress in respect to the general understanding of the subject is noticeable. In a number of cities, public opinion seems to be prepared to give practical effect to the idea forcibly expressed by D. J. D. Runkle, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, that 'to give hand instruction its full educational value, it should be incorporated into the school course and pursued systematically in connection with cognate studies.'"

We want, in this practical age, not only men of knowledge, but men of skill in every department of human activity. Where do our wealthy citizens procure the finest specimens of manufactured articles; where the costly articles wrought in silver, gold, or precious stones; where the beautiful tapestries, carvings, paintings, and choice specimens of decorative art? Is it not from Europe? And if not from Europe, is not the work done here by a European trained artisan? In reply to the subjoined question addressed to prominent citizens in every county of the State:

Are skilled mechanics in your county, such as are engaged in watchmaking, gold, silver, and jewelry work, engraving, lithographing, wood cutting and carving, ornamental painting, decorating, and other high grades of mechanical labor, of American or foreign birth?

The answers returned were almost invariably "foreign."

Go into a church, hall, store, or dwelling, where wall or ceiling is being frescoed, or where artistic decoration is carried on, and you will in nine cases out of ten find foreign workmen. There is plenty of room on the top rung of the labor ladder. The lower ones are crowded. Our millionaires are on the increase. Rich men can afford to buy, and *will buy* at high figures, the work of the skilled mechanic in metal, wood, bronze, or canvas. They cannot purchase beyond a certain limit tables, chairs and the other ordinary articles of household furniture, but for the beautiful artistic productions of the skilled mechanic, where brain and culture come into play, there is no limit, and the field is vast indeed, but the laborers few.

DIVISIONS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

The grades or classes in which the hand and eye, or physical and mechanical training enter, may be divided into four classes, and it is well to bear the distinctions in mind when the subject of manual training is discussed,

so as not to confound one class with another. They are as follows: 1. The Kindergarten; 2. The Manual Training School; 3. The Technical School; 4. The Industrial School.

The first, or the Kindergarten, teaches children of from three to seven years of age, under guise of play, a knowledge of facts by observation. No letters or books are used.

The second, or Manual Training School, combines the ordinary literary course with that of training the hand and eye to the use of tools.

The third, or the Technical School, is one to prepare students for professional work, such as architects, engineers, etc.

The fourth, or the Industrial School, is one in which trades are taught.

The first three then follow in regular rotation, the second being the complement of the first, and the third of the second. The object of the manual training school then is not to make mechanics. That is the province of the industrial or trades school. The instruction given in manual training schools shows what are the essential properties of materials and their economic values, rather than what may be called practical work in the way of manufacturing useful articles. The course of instruction in the workshop attached to the school is very broad and liberal, including work on all common varieties of wood, plaster, iron, steel, brass, etc.

Mechanical drawing is a prominent and most essential feature in the entire course. The manual training school, then, teaches the elements of a great many trades, but does not teach any one trade completely. A boy who wants to become a mechanic must go either to a trade school, or to a master mechanic, to complete the work.

MANUAL TRAINING DEFINED.

The manual training school is simply a high school with the manual feature added.

The day is probably not far distant when the high schools in every city in the United States shall be at the same time a manual training school, as is the case at present in Philadelphia, Cleveland, Baltimore, and Toledo, and other cities.

"In the grammar school," says Professor Woodward, "there should be no attempt made to do work either in the shop or in drawing, which is suitable only for the older pupils." The manual feature can be added to any high school. In all schools where it has been so added it has been found that the pupils stick to the end of the term. Such schools are full to overflowing with boys, many of whom would not have been in any school but for the manual training.

Parents take their children from school now long before they have completed their course, because they fail to see that any more schooling would make their children any better bread winners, but when they see them bring home from school some sample of their handiwork in wood, plaster, or iron, the practical benefit to be derived from continuing at school becomes apparent. Besides, they see the son or daughter, who would otherwise be idling away the time listlessly, or reading some trashy novel at home, now busy at work around the house in some useful work with tools in their hands. Parents will under such circumstances make great sacrifices to keep their children longer at school than at present, and the testimony of all who have tested it corroborates the assertion.

It may be argued, *per contra*, that a pupil who desires to learn a trade can do so after he finishes the grammar or high school course by going into some workshop as an apprentice, where he will be taught the trade

thoroughly. The withdrawing of youth, who have learned little more than the bare rudiments, from school and placing them in a workshop has lowered the standard of all mechanical pursuits, and has given rise to the notion that a mechanic needs but very little education. In apprenticeship at any kind of tool work the boy is not taught drawing as a part of his trade. Very few mechanics are good draughtsmen. Few of them can understand drawings as well as the graduates of manual training schools. An apprentice is confined to a very limited range of work, and, as was pointed out before, he is kept at the particular line of work which he has mastered to the end of his term, because in it he can be of profit to his employer. The graduate of a manual training school, on the contrary, has not been confined to the use of any particular tool or line of work, but has learned the use of many tools, and laid the foundation of any one of twenty trades to which he may choose to turn. The boy who has passed through the manual training school has learned for what occupation he has a taste, if he has any taste or bias in him.

Where all the powers of a boy are brought into play before his eyes, the principal of a school can also be better able to judge for what line of business his pupil is best adapted. Professor Woodward says: "It is a crime against freedom and humanity to put a boy fourteen or fifteen years old to learn a trade as an apprentice, and, as a rule, to commit him to that trade for life, without intelligent choice of occupation and little chance of correcting a mistake if one is made."

In a report made by a commission appointed by the Legislature of the State of New Jersey to inquire into labor matters, it is said: "Too often is the ordinary apprentice left to find out the right way by personal hard experience; but in an instruction shop, where the only duty of the expert is to teach the pupil, he learns to be a good workman much quicker than in an ordinary shop; and not only does he make more rapid progress in the right direction, but he is saved from falling into clumsy habits and methods of work."

The apprentice in a shop, under a "boss," is made to do the chores—the dirty work of the establishment. He is the fag end, the least important, and the least considered there. But in the manual training school he is the peer of his fellows. It is for him the school exists, and he is the material that must be turned out finished, and not the articles in wood, plaster, or metal, which surround him. Instead of being left to himself to pick up what he can he has competent teachers, who feel a pride in his advancement because the credit of the school is at stake.

COST OF MANUAL TRAINING.

But then what about the cost, and the many other difficulties, such as providing suitable teachers, and equipment, etc.?

The difficulties are not so great as they appear at first sight. Tool instruction is what is needed, and not how to make any particular articles—instruction in the nature, theory, and use of tools. There are only seven hand tools: the ax, the saw, the plane, the hammer, the square, the chisel, the file. Besides, there are the machine tools, which are chiefly employed in mechanical pursuits. The modest ambition of the advocate of manual training is to make pupils acquainted with the use of these tools, so as to become useful to themselves and lay the groundwork for future development. Anything beyond this must be looked for in some polytechnic or scientific school especially designed for the purpose.

In the St. Louis school it costs from $5 to $7 per pupil per year for

materials. The working sections of this school have from twenty to twenty-four students each, and there is a teacher for each section, but the Director "strongly insists that no community in which a manual training school has once been established would allow its expense to be an argument against it."

Taking into consideration the vast sums expended to erect and maintain State Universities, Normal Schools, and institutions for the higher order of education, the amount required to equip and support manual training schools in connection with our high schools, would appear very small, indeed. It may be well to remind those who may cavil at the expense that the common school is at the root and foundation of our national advancement, that it is for the benefit of the masses and not of the classes, and that for one who enters the university, or similar institution, ninety-nine must be content with the education afforded in the public school.

The expense incurred in establishing and running a manual training school in connection with the High School of Springfield, Massachusetts, may be taken as fairly typical of what it would be in other places. The following particulars are taken from the report of the school committee of that city for 1886. An appropriation of $1,000 was made by the city government of Springfield for manual training by way of experiment. The basement of the high school building was selected for a workshop, and a competent teacher was engaged.

Thirteen benches designed for wood working were obtained and equipped with suitable tools for the class of work to be taught. Three large cupboards, each containing thirty-two compartments, were provided for the convenience of the pupils. The school opened on July 12, 1886, with two vacation classes of twenty-two scholars. The fall term opened with an enrollment of ninety-one scholars, which number soon increased to ninety-six, and these were divided into eight classes of twelve scholars each. It was arranged that each class should receive one lesson a week of one and one half hours' duration. The course of instruction arranged consisted of fifteen lessons, covering the use of the hammer, nail driving, measurement, use of the try-square, gauging, sawing to line, cutting to length, cutting to width, shelf making, box making, use of dividers, boring, use of bradawl, use of chisel, examples in construction, and the general use of carpenters' tools, their parts described and defined, their adjustment explained, and the pupils taught to keep them in working order. On November ninth, an additional class was organized for Saturday afternoons, consisting of twelve scholars from private schools.

The Saturday morning class has among its members four of the grammar school principals and the drawing teacher. This fact is mentioned to show the interest manifested in manual training by many of our most accomplished instructors.

The cost of the experimental training school, from its establishment to January first, is as follows:

Cost of equipment	$503 19
Cost of material	60 11
Salary of instructor	231 14
Balance of appropriation, not used	205 56
Total	$1,000 00

The remainder of the appropriation will carry the school, on the present plan, until March, 1887.

One thousand dollars were sufficient to pay the cost of equipment and

material and the salary of the instructor for nine months in this experimental attempt in manual training.

One statement in the report is very significant: "It is the testimony of the principals of the high school and the grammar schools that the time given to manual training has not retarded the pupils in their regular studies." Another is that four of the grammar school teachers were in the manual training class. From a careful estimate made by the committee, $50 per capita yearly ought to pay the expense of maintaining in a proper manner a manual training school of one hundred pupils.

BALTIMORE TRAINING SCHOOL.

The cost of maintaining the Manual Training School of Baltimore (one of the most successful schools in the country and connected with the public schools), for the year 1887, is given as follows:

To five per cent of $12,559 53, value of plant	$627 98
To twenty-five per cent of $2,520 91, value of books	630 26
To lumber and metal for lessons	480 00
To engine castings and wrought iron for senior class	115 00
To wood and coal	270 00
To salaries of instructor and janitor	6,567 50
Total	$8,690 74

Number of students on the roll during the year, 352, and $8,690 74 divided by 352—$24 69, the cost per student. Leaving out the percentages on plant and books, we find the actual running expenses to be $7,132 50, making the cost per student $20 26.

THE SAN FRANCISCO HIGH SCHOOL.

The number of boys enrolled in the High School of San Francisco, according to the Secretary's report for 1886–7, was two hundred and ninety-one.

The salaries of the teachers in the Boys High School of San Francisco are as follows:

Principal	$250 00
Head of English Department	160 00
Head of Scientific Department	160 00
Head of Mathematical Department	160 00
Head of Classical Department	160 00
Teacher of mechanical drawing	30 00
Assistant teachers	140 00
Total	$1,060 00

Or $12,720 per year.

As the number of pupils on the rolls is given at two hundred and ninety-one, the cost per capita for teachers' salaries alone (leaving out all other expenses of the school) amounts to $43 71, while the cost of the Baltimore training school, for all the running expenses, amounts to only $20 26.

The staff of the Baltimore school consisted of a principal, four teachers in different branches of education, four instructors in different branches of manual training, one engineer, one fireman, and one janitor.

Professor Woodward, who is an excellent authority on the subject, gives the following information concerning cost of materials:

KIT OF COMMON TOOLS.

One 20-inch rip-saw, costing	$1 60
One back-saw, costing	1 00
One claw-hammer, costing	40
One mallet, costing	25
One small steel square, costing	80
One 6-inch try square, costing	25
One marking gauge, costing	25
One T-bevel gauge, costing	25
One pair compasses, costing	20
One oil stone, costing	50
One oil can, costing	15
One screwdriver, costing	20
One bench brush, costing	30
Total	$6 15

KIT OF INDIVIDUAL TOOLS.

One 20-inch panel cross-cut saw, costing	$0 80
One jack plane, costing	60
One smoothing plane, costing	50
Four chisels, ¼-inch, ½-inch, ¾-inch, 1-inch, costing	90
Three gouges, ¼-inch, ½-inch, 1-inch, costing	70
Two turning gouges, ¼-inch, ⅞-inch, costing	55
Two turning chisels, ⅜-inch, ⅞-inch, costing	45
One parting tool, costing	40
One round-nose tool	40
One pair 5-inch calipers, costing	25
One 2-foot rule, costing	15
One oilstone slip, costing	15
Total	$5 85

OCCASIONAL AND SPECIAL TOOLS.

One large steel square, costing	$1 25
One 24-inch cross-cut saw, costing	1 35
One 24-inch rip-saw, costing	1 60
Two jointer planes, 22 inches long, costing	2 20
Two fore-planes, 18 inches long, costing	1 60
Two bit-braces, costing	2 50
Two sets countersinks and screwdriver, costing	8 20
One hatchet, costing	60
Two nail sets, costing	30
Two ½-inch screw taps and dies for wood, costing	1 60
One drawshave, costing	90
One spokeshave, costing	40
Two monkey wrenches, costing	1 00
One compass saw, costing	35
One full set of twelve wood carving tools with handles, costing	4 75
One glue pot complete, with lamp or steam connection, costing	1 50
Total	$30 10

From the foregoing estimates it will be seen that the cost of the entire outfit of the shop (excluding power and power attachments) for seventy-two boys may be given approximately as follows:

Twenty-five benches at $15	$375 00
Twenty-five sets "common" tools at $6 15	153 75
Seventy-three sets "individual" tools at $5 85	427 05
Set of special and occasional tools	30 10
Grindstones, with attachments	40 00
Wash-trough, dishes, plumbing, etc., say	70 00
Total	$1,105 90

WHERE TEACHERS ARE TO COME FROM.

As to the difficulty of procuring suitable teachers, that, in time, would regulate itself. The attempt to establish manual training schools in con-

[illegible] with the high schools which [illegible] be saw and practical, and the necessary time would be given for the proper training of teachers in our normal schools. In [illegible] a sufficient number of teachers, graduates of the normal schools, [illegible] to fill all present requirements.

RISE AND GROWTH OF MANUAL TRAINING.

The following brief sketch of the origin and growth of the manual training movement in the educational system of the United States is taken mainly from Professor Woodward's excellent work on "The Manual Training School."

In 1862 John Boynton of Tewksbury, Massachusetts, gave $[illegible] for the establishment and perpetual support of a free institute in the growth of Worcester County, Massachusetts. The plan adopted for operating "The aim of this school shall be the instruction of youth in those branches of education not usually taught in the public schools which are essential and best adapted to train the young for practical life."

It was opened in 1866 as a technical school of about college grade, and is known as the "Worcester Free Institute."

In 1871 a wood working shop was added to the equipment for the course in engineering, and a iron working shop in the course in mechanical engineering in the University of Illinois.

In 1873 the Stevens Institute of Hoboken, in memory embowed by Edwin A. Stevens, as a school of mechanical engineering fitted up a series of shops for the use of its students.

In 1873 a large shop in the Polytechnic School of the St. Louis University was supplied with work benches, two lathes, a drill, a gear cutter, and [illegible] sets of carpenters' machines and jigging tools.

In 1874 the St. Louis Manual Training School was established.

In 1881 the Baltimore Manual Training School, a public school on the same footing as the high school, was opened.

In 1884 the Chicago Manual Training School, established as an incorporated school of the commercial city of that city, was opened.

In 1884 manual training was introduced into the high school of Eau Claire, Wisconsin.

In 1885 the Sioux Manual Training School was organized as a part of the public school of Toledo.

In 1886 manual training was introduced into the College High School of the City of New York.

In 1886 the Lincoln Grammar School, Oakland, introduced manual training.

In 1886 the Gramercy Park Tool-House, of New York, was opened.

In 1887 the Philadelphia Manual Training School, a public high school, was opened.

In 1888 the Omaha high school introduced manual training.

In 1888 the Manual Training School of Denver University was opened as a preparatory school, and in 1890 tuition in it was made free to Colorado boys.

In 1889 the Cleveland Manual Training School was incorporated and opened in connection with the high school of that city, in 1890.

In 1890, New Haven, which had for some time encouraged the use of tools by the pupils of several of its grammar schools, opened a regular shop and furnished systematic instruction in tool work.

In 1890 the West Side High School of Chicago added manual training to its course.

In 1886 the Technical School of Cincinnati was opened. It is in all but name a manual training school.

In 1887 manual training was introduced into the high school of Minneapolis.

Swatmore College, near Philadelphia, has had for three years regular manual training.

Dr. Adler's Workingman's School for poor children has for several years taught manual training to the very lowest grades.

The Tulane High School, a preparatory department of the Tulane University, New Orleans, has been established as a regular manual training school.

In 1888, August 6, the Cogswell Polytechnic College, in San Francisco, was opened.

REPORT OF UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

The report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1885–86 gives tabulated statistics relating to fourteen manual training schools as follows, but not in the order of their foundation:

TABLE F F.

Statistics of Manual Training Schools for 1885–86.

	Name.	Industries Taught.	Year Established.
1	Haish Manual Training School, Denver, Col.	Mechanical drawing, blacksmithing, carpentering, wood turning, and pattern making	1885
2	Chicago Manual Training School	Wood and metal work and drawing	1883
3	Manual Training School of Tulane University, New Orleans		
4	Baltimore Manual Training School	Drawing, carpentry, wood turning, drilling, planing, pattern making, etc.	1884
5	Manual Training School of Public High School, Boston, Mass.		1885
6	Artisans Training School (University of Minnesota)		
7	Manual Training School of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.	Wood and metal work	1879
8	Industrial Department, College of New York City	Wood and metal working	1883
9	Workingman's School (Heb. Soc. Ethic. Culture), New York		1880
10	Cleveland Manual Training School	Carpentry, wood turning, pattern making, forging, and machine shop work	1886
11	Scott Manual Training School (Toledo University)		1885
12	Manual Training School, Philadelphia	Carpentry, smithing, forging, molding, pattern making, wood turning, wood carving, study of steam engines, etc.	1885
13	Course in Manual Technology Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee		1884
14	Miller Manual Labor School, Crozet, Virginia	Mechanic arts and agriculture	1878

BUSINESS COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

Heretofore we have devoted much attention to the training of youth for mercantile and commercial pursuits. The system of instruction in our

public schools seems specially designed for the benefit of those who intend to follow such pursuits. Besides the public schools, a large number of private schools, colleges, and institutes have been established for special instruction in penmanship, bookkeeping, accounts, banking, telegraphy, shorthand, type writing, etc. The following is a comparative exhibit of schools for business training, as reported to the United States Bureau of Education at Washington, for each year from 1876 to 1886, inclusive:

BUSINESS OR COMMERCIAL COLLEGES.

	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
Number of institutions	137	134	129	144	162
Number of instructors	599	568	527	535	619
Number of students	25,234	23,496	21,048	22,621	27,146
	1881.	**1882.**	**1884.**	**1885.**	**1886.**
Number of institutions	202	217	221	232	239
Number of instructors	794	955	1,015	1,099	1,040
Number of students	34,414	44,834	44,047	43,706	47,176

The same report from the United States Commissioner of Education gives the following summary of the number of pupils, etc., in all kinds of industrial and manual training schools:

TABLE G G.

Industrial training in various forms. Summary of the statistics of schools giving industrial training in various forms.

CLASS OF SCHOOLS.	Number of Schools Reporting	Instructors	STUDENTS.			Volumes in Libraries	Income	Expenditure
			Total	Male	Female			
For white youth	26	321	9,530	3,223	6,041	8,343	$266,032	$320,590
For colored youth	11	59	782	280	502	16,903	38,418	37,107
For Indians	12	139	1,444	924	520	3,684	236,068	208,565
Manual training schools	14	63	1,544	1,328	216	4,450	133,980	123,950
Totals	63	582	13,300	5,755	7,279	33,380	$674,498	$690,212

The number of students in business colleges is, according to this exhibit, nearly four times greater than the number receiving industrial and manual training. In other words, we have four pupils being trained to become clerks to the one trained to become a mechanic in schools.

WHERE MECHANICS COME FROM.

In the chapter on apprenticeship it can be seen by reference to the table showing the number of immigrants by occupations, that the average number of skilled artisans arriving in the United States is about fifty thousand per annum.

The total number of students receiving industrial training in the United

States is thirteen thousand. From this number should be deducted one thousand five hundred and forty-four manual training scholars, for they are not taught trades, and we find the number of students who are taught trades in the industrial schools of the country amounts to eleven thousand four hundred and fifty-six. Taking three years as a *minimum* course for a scholar to learn a trade, it will be seen that these schools turn out about four thousand skilled laborers per year. But these include both sexes.

It was shown in a former chapter that less than 5 per cent of the skilled class of immigrants were females, so that the average number of mechanics arriving in the United States would be in the neighborhood of forty-five thousand per annum.

The number of male students receiving instruction in the industrial schools of the United States is only five thousand seven hundred and fifty-five. Deducting the number of manual training pupils, one thousand three hundred and twenty-eight, and we find there were, in 1886, four thousand four hundred and twenty-seven boys learning trades in our industrial schools.

The latter would therefore turn out about one thousand five hundred mechanics every year, or one thirtieth of the number we receive into this country from Europe. It can be seen by these figures what little ground there is for the fear entertained by some mechanics that the establishment of manual and industrial schools will deluge the labor market and injure the trades. Thirty times the present capacity of turning out mechanics in this country will be required before we can equal the number that are added to the body of mechanics yearly by immigration.

Instead, then, of protesting against the establishment of manual training and technical schools in the United States, would it not be more profitable for this class of objectors, or "growlers," to turn their attention to the immigration problem? It is the old story of trying to stop a leakage at the spigot hole and allowing it to run at the bung.

OBJECTIONS OF TRADES UNIONS TO MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The strongest, most reasonable, and most pointed objections on the part of the trades unions are well summed by one of them in these words:

> We believe that a training such as a boy would receive there must, of necessity, be largely theoretical, and that the boy when turned out from the schools, owing to the lack of actual practice in the application of the theories they had learned, would, for a time, form a goodly proportion of that curse of all trades, incompetent mechanics.
>
> They would form a factor that could be readily utilized by unscrupulous employers in their never ceasing efforts to crush the workmen, as they would be compelled by their necessities to work for a lesser remuneration than the standard wages of the trade they had studied.

There is much force in these objections. It is most likely that in every manual training school some drones will be found who will not finish the course, or, if so, get through by some cramming or sneaking process.

Others will drop off before half through. They are likely to fulfill the predictions above referred to, by becoming barnacles on a trade of which they acquired a smattering knowledge at school.

From the statements of all who have had experience in manual training and its results, the contrary effects to those apprehended by some unions actually occur. Scholars who have passed through the whole course of the manual training school creditably, from the education they have received, quickly advance themselves to positions of credit in the craft they join. Instead of degrading or dragging it down they try to elevate it. It must

be evident that a young man, with a good, solid, grammar or high school education, who also is a good draughtsman, and has received a practical training in the use of tools and general mechanism, will not be content to fall into the class of mere "helpers" and be looked upon as a "scab" by mechanics inferior to himself in mental acquirements. The probabilities are, and time will so prove, that the establishment of manual training schools will have the effect of elevating and dignifying mechanical labor. It will mix more brain with muscle, and the class of mechanics that will there receive their initiatory or fundamental knowledge will be men who will not be likely to allow themselves to be kept under heel.

As Professor Woodward well says: "The boys educated in manual training schools will never become mere machine men. They will never be content, whatever the vocation to which circumstances and their own fitness may call them, to put their brains away like a piece of ornamental toggery for which they have no daily use. They have many chances in their favor. They have fast hold of a ladder, which, with vigorous climbing, will carry them to the top."

Besides, it must be borne in mind that the manual training schools do not teach trades, nor do all their graduates become mechanics after they leave the school. As many, if not more, become professional and business men. A large number become farmers.

In a manual training school which graduates, say, fifty students a year, it is probable that not half that number will become mechanics. The lawyer, the banker, the merchant, and the farmer who had graduated from a manual training school, may sometimes interfere with the business of the carpenter, plumber, blacksmith, etc., by being handy with the tools they have learned to use in school, in doing odd jobs about the house, the store, or the farm. Under the new dispensation we may expect to see the lawyer, doctor, or clergyman, with coat off and shirt sleeves tucked up, beads of sweat rolling down his face, using hammer, saw, and plane as deftly as a mechanic. In this direction manual training may to some extent militate against the interest of the mechanic.

MANUAL SCHOOL GRADUATES COMPARED WITH MECHANICS FROM ABROAD.

Compare the probable number of future mechanics graduating from a school of one hundred pupils with the probable increase in mechanics by immigration, as drawn from figures given in a previous part of this report. The result will show that if we had a score of colleges in this State like the Cogswell Polytechnic College, the skilled labor market would not be so seriously affected by the addition to its number yearly as it is by the tide of immigration from Europe, should it continue to flow in at the rate it has in the past. (See the figures given elsewhere.)

CHAPTER II.

MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The Leland Stanford, Jr., University.

The new university, in course of erection at Palo Alto, founded by Senator Stanford, is to give a practical as well as a classical education.

If the ideas of the founder are realized, it will be the most unique and useful institution, as it is one of the most liberally endowed in the world.

The vastness in conception and magnificence in endowment of this institution are almost without precedent in the history of nations. In round numbers about $20,000,000 is the estimated value of the endowment. It will be a training school for the physical as well as the intellectual youth. It will be the grand center of the practical man as well as of the cultured in California.

From the manual labor departments of the university are expected the earliest and most practical benefits of this magnificent enterprise.

"I intend," said the founder, "that the Stanford University shall not only give one a classical education, but that under its roof one may learn telegraphy, type setting, type writing, journalism, bookkeeping, farming, civil engineering, etc. For a number of years prior to its inception, young men, graduates of Harvard, Yale, and other eastern colleges, used to call on me, bearing letters of introduction, and asking me to find employment for them. I would learn, on examination, that while their knowledge of Greek and Latin, logic and metaphysics, might be thorough, they were actually helpless so far as practical knowledge went. They were willing to learn, it is true, but the world is full of unskilled labor, and so I was forced to put them on the railroad as conductors, brakemen, and firemen, in order that they might become self-supporting. I then conceived the idea of a university from which young men could graduate fully equipped for the battle of life in whatever direction their taste might run."

The benefits of the university are not to be confined to boys alone; they are to be equally extended to girls. It will be a university on the co-educational plan, and it is not intended that the girls shall be confined in their study to books or to drawing and painting. Senator and Mrs. Stanford are of the opinion that there are very many useful mechanical arts which girls can learn, and by the use of which they can make comfortable livelihoods. There will be a school, for instance, to teach the girls at the university cookery. There will be masters to instruct them in designing patterns for wall paper and fabrics; and women can also be engaged profitably in wood carving and many other such mechanical operations. It is the intention to increase as far as possible the number of occupations in which women may profitably and pleasantly engage, and to equip the girls who desire such training for these mechanical industries. Keeping in mind that the main idea of the university is to be useful to the great mass of the people, the founders purpose that students who desire it shall be instructed in the mechanical and useful arts. It is intended to prepare boys for the workshop as well as for the professions, and all the mechanical arts, so far as possible, will be taught by most skillful masters. This branch of the university will also afford the students an opportunity to defray a portion of their expenses. Machinery will be in operation; work will be done which will be sold in the public markets; and in this way the students who are engaged in this department will be enabled to earn a substantial sum of money. For instance, it is proposed that cabinet making shall be taught in the university in a practical manner; furniture of artistic designs will be constructed, and the students while learning this business will be apprentices. The product of the labor of the instructors and the students will be sold, or will be used in the dwelling houses on the estate, and those engaged in this labor will be paid for their work. In this practical way the student will be taught his trade. All the other mechanical trades will be taught practically in the same way.

There will be a fruit orchard to plant and cultivate; there will be trees to prune, and fruit to pick and can. In California this is destined to be a great industry, and much technical education will be required to prosecute

it successfully. Some of the students at the university at Palo Alto, who intend to make fruit culture their business in life, will be employed in the orchards on that estate, and they will be paid for their labor, and at the same time become masters, not only of the technical knowledge part of their work, but also of the practical part of their business. There will be a vineyard on the place, and this will have to be planted and tended. Grapes will have to be picked and pressed into wine. Viticulture, too, is destined to be a great industry in California, and many students, undoubtedly, will seek the university to be trained thoroughly in the business of caring for a vineyard and making wine. Students will be employed at so much a day or hour there to do the manual work in the vineyards, and be thus enabled to at least partially defray by their own work their expenses at the university.

MANUAL TRAINING IN SAN FRANCISCO—THE COGSWELL POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE.

The Cogswell Polytechnic College, situated on Twenty-sixth and Folsom Streets, San Francisco, was opened for the reception of students on Monday, August 6, 1888. It is the first school for manual training established west of the Rocky Mountains, and marks a new era in the history of San Francisco. The brief history of California, as a State among a noble sisterhood of States, shows much that is great and praiseworthy, but the record of the act of Doctor Cogswell in founding this most useful institution will be one of the brightest pages in it. The youth of the State have reason to be especially grateful to this public benefactor, for he has opened avenues for future usefulness hitherto closed to them.

The fact is well established that when a Californian undertakes to do something good, he does it in no half-hearted or small way, and the princely benefaction of $1,000,000 for this college proves that Doctor Cogswell has maintained the reputation of his adopted State.

The college building is large, beautiful and most attractive in design and finish, and, in every particular, well adapted for the purpose for which it was constructed. It is claimed for it, by those who ought to know, that it is the most perfect of its kind, in all its structural arrangements, in the United States.

The Superintendent, Mr. James G. Kennedy, thus described the aims and objects of the college:

The theory on which the school is based is that education should correspond to the spirit of the people. That is, in an agricultural district it should be agricultural; in manufacturing and commercial districts it should pertain to manufacturing and to commerce, so that when a boy goes out he may have not only something to do, but be recognized as a superior workman, having intelligence outside of his practical knowledge of the use of tools. For boys we have, first, a wood laboratory, where they will learn to make all kinds of joints and everything else a carpenter can learn; second, is an iron shop; third, a forging shop; fourth, a foundry; fifth, assaying laboratory.

The girl learns, first, clay modeling—the basis for all kinds of modeling of brackets, chandeliers, etc.; second is drawing; third, designing; fourth, china painting; fifth, *repousse* work—hammering out brass, gold, silver, and copper work; sixth, wood carving; seventh, plain and ornamental sewing. Cooking may come later, but thus far no provision has been made for it. That is merely an outline of the manual work.

Of course while the pupils are pursuing their course in handicraft they are also learning English, and either Latin, French, German, or Spanish, applied mathematics, etc. We will teach on the principle that it does not take a boy as long to learn the principles of physics and chemistry while working at the bench, as it does to teach him the theory without the practice. We will waste no time on the study of English, but we will study English spelling, grammar, and rhetoric daily with our history or other subjects.

It is my hobby that those branches which we use every time we read or talk or write should be inseparably interwoven into all other studies. It will be the teaching of the future. In future there will be no such thing as a separate hour devoted to spelling, one to grammar, one to composition, but all will come in with the study of history or any other

branches wherein are to be found words and ideas new to the pupils. These boys will go hence with more sound practical English, grammar, higher mathematics, chemistry, physics (besides a trade they can follow) than any boy graduated from the San Francisco High School. Mind you, I don't say that when they begin they will be as rapid workmen as those who have devoted all their lives to work and work only. But after a little practice they will not only become as rapid in the accomplishment of their work, but will be more valuable employés, from their knowledge of the relationship their special work bears to other work in the shop. They will be superior in many other ways. I have spoken to leading founders and builders and they encourage me by promising to give the graduates of the college a fair trial after graduation. That is all I shall ask. I know that with but few exceptions the graduates of the Cogswell Polytechnical College will be acceptable in any industry they are taught.

The following particulars descriptive of the building are taken from the San Francisco "Daily Report:"

The college buildings are on the southeast corner of Twenty-sixth and Folsom Streets, and the main building faces Twenty-sixth Street. The lot fronts two hundred and forty-five feet on Folsom and one hundred and eighty-two feet on Twenty-sixth. The building is three stories in height, and from its imposing and substantial appearance is the most notable structure in the southwestern portion of the city. It is seventy-one feet in width by eighty-five feet in depth, not including the projections. On each side is a wing two stories in height, each thirty-five by forty feet. The building is surmounted with a metal roof with handsome cresting on the ridges. In front a high tower rises to the height of one hundred and twenty-seven feet, the apex topped with a revolving crystal star set in a copper pinnacle. On the face of the tower, above the third-story line, is the dial of a clock, and still lower down the name of the college. The main entrance is spacious and surrounded with a wide porch. On each side of the door is a niche for the placing of pieces of statuary. There are also two side entrances, one for boys and the other for girls. The main entrance porch is approached by a broad flight of stone steps. The main hallway is ten feet in width, and it opens into a cross-hallway twelve feet wide, which crosses the building from end to end. From the cross-hall stairways lead to the second story; stairs also lead to the stage at the rear and to the front of the assembly hall in the story above. It will thus be seen that the means of egress are unusually excellent, there being three wide doorways from the ground floor to the street, and two from the second story to the assembly hall. There are to be ten class rooms, each twenty-eight by thirty feet; four to be on the main floor and the other six to be in the second story. Two class rooms are already ready. On the first floor also, are the offices of the President and Secretary, a reception parlor, a library sixteen by twenty-eight feet, and a museum twenty by twenty-eight feet, besides a number of dressing and toilet rooms. A spacious assembly hall occupies the entire third story. It is sixty-eight by seventy feet in size, and will have a seating capacity for one thousand. It will be used for the delivery of scientific and other lectures in connection with the regular courses of study in the school. This hall will eventually be handsomely furnished and provided with a stage, with all the necessary adjuncts for completeness. All the rooms are well lighted, and every appliance known to modern skill is introduced to make ventilation perfect. They are lighted with electricity, and electric bells and speaking tubes are run throughout the structure

A short distance in the rear of the main edifice is another building, in which the shops and laboratories are fitted up. It faces the north and is one hundred and fifty-two feet in length by forty feet wide and two stories in height. The ground floor is devoted exclusively to iron work, both designing and molding; having departments for filing, fitting, and chipping. A laboratory is established in a room thirty-five by forty feet and fitted with all the essentials for thorough instruction in polishing, fitting, and setting up of various pieces and descriptions of machinery. A machine tool laboratory is forty by forty feet in size and completely equipped with iron lathes, a drill-press, planers, and rollers, by the aid of which pupils will be instructed in the arts of turning, drilling, and planing iron, so that they will be qualified to construct tools and small pieces of machinery. A forging furnace and laboratory has also been established and occupy a space forty by forty feet. The founding laboratory will be thirty-five by forty feet in size, and contain a smelting furnace and other necessary appliances.

The second floor will be devoted to the chemical, wood, and physical departments. The carpentry department is forty by thirty-five feet, and supplied with an extensive assortment of tools. A wood-turning factory is forty by forty feet, and supplied with lathes, a planer, a circular saw, a band saw, a mortise machine, a molder, and several other machines. The remaining space on the floor will be at the disposal of the physical and chemical departments. One room, twenty by twenty feet in size, is fitted up with shelving inclosed in a glass front, where all the philosophical apparatus will be kept that is used in experiments in chemistry and physical instruction. The furnaces in connection with this department are in an adjoining room, forty by fifty feet in size.

The department for instruction of girls will be fully as complete in detail as that for the boys. Here instruction will be given in wood and metal carving, sewing, cutting, and fitting, as well as other mechanical studies. In the basement are well lighted lunch rooms for the boys and girls; also rooms for the janitors and others who will reside permanently on the premises. There is also some additional space which may be utilized for class

rooms or shops that may hereafter be required or found desirable. All the departments of machinery will receive motive power from a seventy-five horse-power horizontal engine, which, together with the boilers, will be of the most approved pattern.

For the maintenance of the institution Doctor Cogswell and his wife, on March 24, 1887, executed a deed of trust for about $1,000,000 worth of real estate, the income from which is expected in time to defray all the current expenses of the college.

The trust deeds declare the object of college is to give the boys and girls of the State of California a practical training in the mechanical arts and other industries. There are seven Trustees appointed to carry out the designs of the founder.

One important provision, which the philanthropist made, was that the Trustees should account to the Mayor of San Francisco, "if such accounting be required by him."

Prospectus of Cogswell College.

The college is not designed to teach trades, but to fully prepare the student to enter successfully upon any line of work. The aim is to fully develop the boy and the girl mentally, morally, and physically, thereby producing self-reliant and self-helpful men and women.

This college affords students an opportunity to continue their literary, scientific, and mathematical studies, and at the same time to receive a thorough training in the industrial arts.

At present only one hundred students, or the first class, will be admitted. Each succeeding year pupils will be admitted into the classes, to take the places of those promoted.

Applicants for admission to the Cogswell Polytechnic College must be at least fourteen years of age, and pass an examination in the rudiments of English, arithmetic, geography, and history of the United States. Pupils paying tuition will be admitted upon presentation of a certificate of graduation from a grammar school.

The tuition fees will be $100 per year, payable semi-annually, in advance.

In connection with the college there will be a preparatory department, for the purpose of affording a special preparation for the regular work of the college.

Students, to enter this department, must be at least twelve years of age, and be able to pass an examination on the work of the third grade grammar classes.

The tuition in the preparatory department will be $36 per year, payable semi-annually, in advance. Other conditions will be the same as for entering the regular college course.

Students must furnish their text-books, overalls, aprons, etc. The college furnishes all materials and tools.

Loss or breakage, resulting from carelessness, will be charged to the student responsible for the same.

The necessary books will cost from $10 to $12 per year.

Students are not boarded at the college, but the faculty will take charge of pupils from abroad, when requested. Boarding and lodging can be had in private families for from $5 to $8 per week.

On the basis of 25 per cent, the admission of one hundred students will give twenty-five free scholarships, to be contested for in the competitive examination, which will take place in July next. These scholarships can be contested for by boys and girls alike.

When the college is fully equipped there will be eight laboratories—one for wood, four for metals, one for physics, and one for chemistry. They will be furnished with the best of tools and apparatus, and will be large enough to accommodate from twenty-five to fifty students each. These laboratories will be fully equipped as they are needed.

The college, when completed, will accommodate four hundred students. Of these, one hundred will hold free scholarships. The percentage of free scholarships will be increased as rapidly as the condition on the trust will warrant.

Two hours and thirty minutes of each day is devoted to industrial art. The school day begins at 9 A. M., and closes at 3 P. M., thirty minutes being allowed for the noon intermission. Each student, besides the industrial work, will have three recitations per day.

MANUAL TRAINING IN OAKLAND.

In 1884 a class for manual training was organized in the Lincoln Grammar School of Oakland by the Principal, T. O. Crawford. He had to depend on rather scanty resources for the supply of necessary materials and for the construction of a workshop, benches, etc.. Hence it was started in a small way, but so devoted was the Principal to his work, that it proved a success, and has continued in operation since. Forty-three pupils have been registered for the current term of 1888-89.

The manual training class is divided into two parts, being classified according to the knowledge the pupil possesses of the use of tools, etc. The course is so arranged as not to interfere with their regular school studies. One half day during the week, from 8 A. M. to 12 P. M., is devoted to teaching the use of carpenters' tools, and another half day to instruction in mechanical drawing.

Pupils are allowed the use of the workshop after school hours. The workshop is a well arranged and lighted one-story frame building, erected in the school yard. It is furnished with twenty benches and forty sets of tools. One end of this building is partitioned off and used as a draughting room, wherein pupils are first required to draw scale drawings before being permitted to work on making any article.

The Principal of the school, Mr. J. N. McClymonds, says that "after a trial of manual training for more than four years, the experiment has proved highly satisfactory."

The success attending manual training in this school during the past four years has been so gratifying that the Board of Education authorized the establishment of a similar school in connection with the Franklin Grammar School of Oakland.

CHICAGO MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

The Chicago Manual Training School is in a beautiful building and is admirably equipped. It was opened in January, 1884. There are over two hundred scholars in attendance. The Director, Dr. H. H. Belfield, says: "I am confident that three years of a manual training school will give at least as much purely intellectual growth as three years of the ordinary high school, because every school hour, whether in the class room, the drawing room, or the shop, is an hour devoted to intellectual training."

ST. LOUIS MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

The St. Louis Manual Training School carried off honors and rewards at the Educators National Convention in San Francisco. This is not a free institution. It is a pay school attached to the Washington University.

Great success has attended it from its foundation, under the able superintendence of its Director, Professor C. M. Woodward. The ordinance establishing the manual training school was adopted by the Board of Directors of the University, June 6, 1879. On September 6, 1880, the school opened with a single class of about fifty pupils. The whole number enrolled during the first year was sixty-seven. A public exhibition of drawing and shop work was given June 16, 1881. The second year of the school opened September 12, 1881, and closed June 14, 1883, with the graduation of its class. Twenty-nine young men received diplomas and medals. The enrollment of the year was one hundred and seventy-six. The enrollment for the fourth year was two hundred and one. Twenty-nine students received diplomas June, 1884. The enrollment of the fifth year was two hundred and eighteen. The number of the graduating class in June, 1885, was thirty-nine. The enrollment of the sixth year was two hundred and thirty-three. The graduating class numbered forty-five. The enrollment of the seventh year was two hundred and twenty-six. The graduating class numbered fifty-two.

The following are the tuition fees charged: First year class, $30 per term, or $60 per year; second year class, $40 per term, or $80 per year; third year class, $50 per term, or $100 per year.

The time spent in shop work has never exceeded two hours per day, unless the boys have voluntarily remained after hours; that is, after 3:30 o'clock, for additional practice. Moreover, from these two hours should be subtracted fully ten minutes for washing, dressing, etc. A week, therefore, represents about nine hours of actual work in a shop. Hence, in placing a value upon the time spent, it should be remembered that a "day's work" is all the boys have per week.

The school is now in its eighth year. From the start it has been well patronized, and the enrollment shows a steady increase. Five classes have graduated from the school. About one half of those who attend the school remain to graduate.

BALTIMORE MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

Baltimore has the honor of being the first city of the United States to establish a manual training school in connection with her public school system.

In October, 1883, the City Council of Baltimore passed an ordinance authorizing the Board of Commissioners of Public Schools of that city to establish a school for manual training. In January, 1884, the General Assembly of Maryland passed an Act empowering the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore "to establish in said city a system of free schools, which shall include a school, or schools, for manual or industrial training." This was necessary, as the old law did not authorize them to do so.

The school was opened March 3, 1884, with sixty students.

The most convincing evidence of the success which has attended this innovation into the public system of Baltimore is the remarkable growth in the number of scholars: Students on roll March, 1884, 62; June 30, 1884, 100; December 31, 1884, 147; June 30, 1885, 112; December 31, 1885, 94;

June 30, 1886, 110; December 31, 1886, 150; December 31, 1887, 273; June, 1888, 350.

Candidates for admission must be at least fourteen years of age, and must pass a satisfactory examination in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, and English composition. No fee is charged for the use of tools, materials, and books to the scholars of Baltimore.

BOSTON MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

The Industrial School Association of Boston organized an evening class of thirty-two boys in wood carving, in April, 1884. Their ages ranged from twelve to sixteen. The tools used were three in number: the flat chisel, the gouge, and a veining tool. Blocks of white wood, six inches long, three inches wide, and one and one half inches thick, were the material acted upon. Each boy had a place at a bench, and each had a vice with wooden jaws and an iron screw.

The success of this experiment was so great that the association decided to adopt for their second experiment a course of instruction in the use of common wood working hand tools.

Two hundred boys from ten different grammar schools received instruction two hours per week.

The Superintendent of Schools in his report says: "The interest in their work shown by the boys is very lively, such as I have seldom seen surpassed in any kind of school work. Many boys came to the shop afternoons an hour before the appointed time and got the teachers' permission to work three hours instead of two.

"The experiment has already gone far enough to prove that work of this kind can be joined to the ordinary grammar school work with good effect. But, it may be asked, where is the time for this new branch of instruction? It would be wiser to make room for manual training by dropping some of the old studies. For example, if the question were between physics, as commonly taught out of a book, on the one hand, and the instruction in carpentry on the other, I should unhesitatingly prefer the latter."

PHILADELPHIA MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

The Board of Education of Philadelphia, in September, 1885, opened the City Manual Training School, which is connected with the public school system of that city. The school circular says that the school is intended for boys who had finished the twelfth grade of the grammar school course. The manual training is intended to give the boys such a knowledge of the tools and materials employed in the chief industrial pursuits of our times as shall place them in more direct and sympathetic relations with the great activities of the business world.

An industrial exhibition of the public schools of Philadelphia was held at Horticultural Hall, in that city, on May 28, 1888. A newspaper thus refers to it:

> Besides the special departments in the public school this is a separate institution devoted entirely to manual training with a course of three years. Girls are taught needlework, drawing, clay modeling, costume making, etc., and on the opening of the exhibition there were two hundred ladies from the Normal School, who illustrated the work that had been done from the modest beginning to the artistic perfection.
>
> The girls went through all the mysteries of the kitchen, while not far away was a kindergarten class, where little girls were being taught to sew, hem, and stitch, while classes from the Industrial Art School carved wood and modeled clay with surprising deftness and skill. The boys from the Manual Training School hammered on anvils, ran lathes, experimented with electricity and chemicals, and went through other interesting exercises.

GIRARD COLLEGE.

In the Girard College, Philadelphia, the authorities of that celebrated institution have introduced a mechanical course including drawing, the use of tools, and such other elementary training as will lay the foundation for proficiency in the mechanical arts. About three hundred boys are now receiving instruction.

In the report of 1886 the Directors say in reference to the success attending the manual training department:

The experiment, begun in 1882, was so gratifying that, after an experience of little more than a year, it was determined to increase the number of branches. In December, 1884, teaching the use of tools on wood work was introduced; since then a smith shop and foundry. Mechanical and geometrical drawing are now taught.

We believe that all of these are necessary to equip a lad to go out from the college and take his place among the young mechanics of our country. While each study is taught to every pupil old enough to handle tools, careful supervision soon discovers the branch in which he seems to display most capacity. To this, after having gone through the curriculum, he is allowed to devote himself.

During 1884 metal work alone was taught. During that year only about one third of the boys who left college entered into mechanical pursuits; of those who left in 1885 two thirds have obtained work in mechanical occupations.

No less than thirty of our boys were received into first class mechanical establishments, where, instead of having to learn the most rudimentary branches, they are at once recognized as useful workmen and paid accordingly.

MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS PROJECTED.

Appreciating the importance of expressions of public opinion on the subject of manual training, the following excerpts will show what is being said and done in other States of the Union where schools are about to be established:

Albany, New York.

The subjoined is taken from the report of a special committee appointed to investigate and report as to the advisability of introducing manual training into the public schools of Albany, New York. It was presented to the Board of Public Instruction on October 3, 1887:

Resolved, That it is expedient and advisable that manual training be added as a part of the course of instruction in our public schools.

Resolved, That for the purpose of giving the new system a fair trial, in the most economical manner possible, one of the rooms in the basement of the high school building be fitted up as a wood-working shop; that a competent instructor be employed to teach the boys in attendance at the high school in the proper use of wood-working tools for a period of one year, the total cost not exceeding $1,500.

St. Paul, Minnesota.

The following extracts are taken from a report of a special committee, which was adopted by the Board of Education of St. Paul, Minnesota, February 6, 1888:

We recognize the importance of carrying forward manual training simultaneously with all other educational processes, but provide suitable training for different grades, reserving shop work and the use of wood and machine tools for pupils who have completed or nearly completed the grammar school course.

In accordance with the ideal thus presented there would be no necessity of large expenditures. The present facilities, with those that will be furnished by the addition to the high school, now in course of erection, will answer for the present, and the ideal manual training school will be a natural growth and development of the work now in progress, if it be properly fostered. We recommend that this committee be authorized to prepare and submit a course of study covering a period of three years, to include the studies of English, mathematics, science, drawing, and shop work. That at the end of the present school year, pupils, who have finished the work of the grammar schools, may be admitted to either the high school or the manual training school. That the manual training school for the present be located in the basement of the high school building, its pupils reciting in English, mathematics, and science, in the same classes and to the same teachers as the pupils of the high school.

City of New York.

In the City of New York important steps have lately been taken in the direction of introducing manual training into the public school system. The Board of Education, after long and patient deliberation, adopted a series of resolutions which, while they did not call for the introduction of manual training at once in all the schools, authorized its experimental introduction in six schools for boys and six schools for girls. For this purpose $15,000 has been appropriated. The sum is so small that one cannot fairly treat the results obtained from its expenditure as deciding the success or failure of manual training.

For the introduction of this branch of instruction in sixty public schools, for procuring the necessary materials and tools, for cooking departments, for alterations to buildings, and for teachers' salaries, the cost would be for the first year, $128,500, and for each succeeding year, $90,000. With the small sum now available, only three special teachers can be employed, and a beginning made in twelve schools.

If the workshop and cooking schools be adopted in only one third of the grammar schools, the cost of maintenance for the first year would be $54,500, and the expenses during the succeeding years of maintaining manual training, including the workshop and the cooking school in one third of the grammar schools, would be $41,500. The committee recommends that these types of manual labor should be introduced: Carpenter work, or the use of the wood-working tools for boys; modeling in clay for boys and girls; construction work in paper, pasteboard, and other suitable material, for boys and girls; drawing for boys and girls; sewing for girls, and cooking for girls. It would probably not be possible the first year to introduce the kitchen and workshop into more than one third of the grammar school departments.

Detroit, Michigan.

On February 23, 1888, the Detroit, Michigan, Board of Education received the following report of the Special Committee on Manual Training through Inspector O'Flynn:

Your committee, therefore, earnestly recommend the establishment of such a school, which may be termed the Mechanics' High School. For the first year the current expense will not exceed $10,000.

Your committee recommend that at first so much of the building be erected as will be sufficient for the study and recitation rooms required for the school when completed, and shops for the first year's class. The following year the balance of the building, which will be required for shops for the remaining classes, can be erected. The cost of the site, building, and equipment for the first year will be $60,000, distributed as follows: Building, $23,000; site, $25,000; the equipment of four work rooms, for cooking, sewing, drawing, and carpentry, $3,000; equipment of study and recitation rooms for four hundred pupils, $2,400; contingencies, $6,600. The addition to be made to the building in the second year will cost $23,000, and the shops required for the second, third, and fourth years can be fitted up for $1,500 apiece. These figures are reliable, as they have been obtained from the Superintendent of the Toledo Training School.

Somerville, Massachusetts.

The following report was submitted to the School Committee of Somerville, Massachusetts, on May 28, 1888:

In view of all the work seen and information gathered, your committee are convinced that the establishment of manual training as a feature of the Somerville schools is practical and expedient, being an essential part of a complete educational system, and they respectfully recommend that the school committee inquire further into the subject, and take into consideration the advisability of inaugurating such features of the system as can be introduced, such as are fundamental in a manual training course.

CHAPTER III.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION AND TRADE SCHOOLS.

During the past decade hundreds of technical and trade schools have been established throughout Europe. Russia led the way more than a hundred years ago in introducing the method of class instruction in the use of tools. Their effect upon the manufacturing industries of the people has been most remarkable, and great rivalry exists among the several nations as to which shall excel in the number and efficiency of these schools. Generally speaking, they have been established and are supported by government aid, for the education of children of laboring classes. In some localities they have been established to foster certain industries. In France there are schools for tapestry, silk, and laces; in Belgium, for weaving; in Switzerland, for watches and toys; in Bohemia, for glass making and pottery; in Russia, for machinery and leather, and so on.

Ten years ago Austria had twenty-eight schools for instruction in weaving; three for lace; fifteen for wood, marble, and ivory; six for toys; four for baskets and mats; eight for miscellaneous branches.

We have very few such schools in the United States. The pinch of necessity has not yet been felt to compel any State to establish them, and they are not likely to be so as long as the well trained of foreign lands come to our shores to better their condition. With very few exceptions, the industrial and trade schools in this country are of a charitable or benevolent character, and supported by voluntary contributions. Some for the benefit of Indians are supported by the Government.

The following table shows the number, etc., of such schools, as given by the United States Bureau of Education:

TABLE H H.

Statistics of Schools giving Industrial Training in Various Forms for 1885-86, etc.

No.	Name.	Industries Taught.
1	Industrial department, Talladega College	Sewing, farming, use of tools in carpentry, blacksmithing, printing, and housework.
2	Adeline Smith Industrial Home	Housework, needlework, and cooking.
3	Fort Stevenson Industrial School	General farmwork, carpentry, shoe and harness making, and housework.
4	Dakota Indian Industrial School	Farming, gardening, and carpentering.
5	Industrial department, Clark University	Carriage and wagon work, harnessmaking, printing, sewing, carpentry.
6	Haven Industrial Home School	
7	Connecticut Industrial School	Sewing and cooking.
8	Railroad Mission Industrial School	Sewing.
9	St. Mary's Training School	Farming, shoemaking, tailoring, carpentering, blacksmithing, etc.
10	Busy Bee	Sewing, knitting, and fancy work with needle.
11	White's Indiana Manual Labor Institute	Farming, housekeeping, carpentering, blacksmithing, harness and shoe making.
12	Levering Mission Manual Labor School	Agriculture and various household work.
13	White's Iowa Manual Labor Institute	Work necessary on a grain and stock farm, carpentering, household work, and sewing.
14	Chilocco Indian Industrial School	Blacksmithing, shoemaking, laundry work, carpentry, general house and farm work.
15	Haskill Institute, school for Indians	Shoemaking, blacksmithing, carpentry, farming, and miscellaneous domestic.
16	Maine Industrial School for Girls	Sewing, cooking, and housekeeping.

TABLE H H—Continued.

No.	NAME.	INDUSTRIES TAUGHT.
17	St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys	Printing, tailoring, shoemaking, cigar-making, farming, cooking, carpentering, painting, pipe fitting, and engineering.
18	Industrial School for Girls	Housework, sewing, knitting, and dressmaking.
19	Industrial Schools (2), (Boston, North End Mission)	Sewing and kitchen work.
20	Vacation Industrial School	Carpentry and joinery.
21	South End Industrial School	Printing, sewing, cooking, drawing and designing, carpentry, and kitchen gardening.
22	Children's Home Training School for Girls	Housework and sewing.
23	Industrial School for Girls of the Lansing Industrial Aid Society	Plain sewing and housework.
24	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College	Dressmaking, wood carving, cooking, printing, etc.
25	The Southern Christian Institute of Mississippi	Farming or agriculture.
26	Industrial School, St. Joseph's Convent	Sewing, cooking, washing, and ironing.
27	St. Ignatius Mission School	Carpentry, blacksmithing, harnessmaking, printing, tailoring, general housework, sewing, washing, cooking, etc.
28	Genoa Indian Training School	Farming, harness and shoemaking, carpentering, sewing, tailoring, and housework.
29	Romona Indian industrial department of University of New Mexico	Gardening, carpentry, shoemaking, painting, sewing, cooking, and general housework.
30	Industrial Schools (Children's Friend Society)	Housework, sewing, cooking, and gardening.
31	Brooklyn Industrial School Association, and Home for Destitute Children	Sewing, cooking, all household duties, and carpentry.
32	Eastern District Industrial School	Sewing, darning, and mending.
33	St. Paul's Industrial School	Machine and hand-sewing, dressmaking, and housework.
34	Five Points House of Industry	Type setting, housework, cooking, and sewing.
35	Industrial Schools (12) of the American Female Guardian Society	Sewing, drawing, kitchen gardening, and cooking.
36	Industrial School of St. Augustine's Chapel	Hand and machine sewing, embroidery, worsted work, cutting and fitting.
37	Industrial School of the United Hebrew Charities	Sewing and embroidery.
38	Wilson Industrial School for Girls (and Mission)	Sewing and household work.
39	The Industrial School of Rochester	Chair seating, cooking, sewing, and domestic work.
40	Industrial School of the Sisters of Mercy	Laundry work, housework, and sewing in all of its different branches.
41	Industrial School and Home (Children's Aid Society)	General farm work, etc.
42	Training School for Indian Youth	Blacksmithing and wagon making, carpentering, tailoring, shoemaking, tinning, harnessmaking, painting, printing, farming, cooking, and sewing.
43	Indian Industrial Training School	Shoemaking, tailoring, blacksmithing, carpentering, farming, and gardening.
44	Friends West District Colored School	Sewing to the girls.
45	St. James Industrial School for Girls	Washing, cooking, baking, sweeping, etc.
46	Simpson Industrial Home	Domestic economy and sewing.
47	Slater Training School	Sewing, cooking, housekeeping, and carpentry.
48	Good Shepherd Industrial School	Plain sewing, dressmaking, fancy work, and housekeeping.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

For the benefit of those who predict that the labor market is likely to be flooded with incompetent workmen in the event of manual training and technical schools being extensively established, it is well to cite the opinions of those who have had practical experience in the matter.

In Great Britain there are a very large number of technical schools, which have been in operation many years. The good or evil results flowing from them ought now to be apparent, and mechanics, especially, should know whether or not they are prejudicial to their interests.

The British Trades Unions Congress, held at Hull, England, September, 1886, presented a report, from which the following extract, relating to technical schools, is taken:

> If a certain section of politicians would devote their time to advocating the establishment of technical schools for teaching the sons of our people those subjects which have to do directly with their various trades, instead of denouncing the foreigner and setting people against each other, they would do far more service to the State. We have no greater friend than knowledge, and no more bitter enemy than ignorance. In order to hold our own with the nations of the world we must have the same facilities to obtain for our children and young men both elementary and technical knowledge.

There are two sides at least to every question. If the mechanic has one regarding the utility of technical teaching at school, the boy, whom it also concerns as deeply, has another. If it affects the prosperity of the mechanic on the one hand, it is a matter of bread and butter and of future support on the other.

HOW BOYS ARE TO LEARN TRADES.

Take then, a view of the situation from the standpoint of a boy who feels that he has a taste or desire to become a mechanic. How can he become one? The answer is easy. Let him go to an employer or master mechanic as an apprentice. That is very easy to say, but not so easy to be done, especially in the case of a boy whose father is not a mechanic. In the first place, the trades unions rules limiting the number of apprentices is a serious obstable in his path. I know of my own knowledge of a boy, a most excellent boy, who, after spending some months in a shop in San Francisco, had to leave because there were already too many apprentices in the shop. The limit to the number of apprentices set by the said trade is undoubtedly moderate, and to any one who believes in the right of craftsmen to protect their interests by conservative rules, their action in the matter must appear justifiable.

But what is to become of the boy? His father was not a mechanic and did not belong to any trades union. The boy wished to learn a particular trade, and he found the way blocked. There are a great many boys like him roaming the streets to-day. There are hundreds, aye, thousands of boys from fourteen to seventeen years of age living in an aimless, shiftless manner, who attend school irregularly, and go there because they have nothing else to do, and profit very little by what they are taught because their heart is not in the work. Why? Because they lack a motive, an impulse of action. These boys would be at a trade if they only knew the way to get there. If tools were put in their hands and some one placed over them to teach them how to use the tools, these same shiftless, aimless boys, who before seemed good for nothing, would brighten up and work with a vim.

It is not the fault of most boys if they misspend their time in idleness or worse, but the fault of the conditions under which they live.

Michael Davitt spoke the truth when he said, "A boy must commit a crime before an opportunity is afforded him by the State to learn a trade." In a few instances boys have actually done so deliberately for the purpose of being sent to some prison where trades are taught. Here is a striking instance taken from a California newspaper:

A STRANGE CRIME—A MAN COMMITTED ARSON TO LEARN A TRADE IN SAN QUENTIN.

A young man named John O'Brien accosted Police Officer Williams yesterday afternoon, and said he wished to give himself into custody for arson. He said he had burned about seventy-five ties at the Peralto Yards in West Oakland. Investigation revealed the truth of his assertion, and he was locked up for safe keeping. He could offer no explanation for his strange act in giving himself up, stoutly declaring that the arson had been committed with malice and forethought. He said "*he had never learned a trade, and if he went to San Quentin that defect might be remedied.*"

Less than a year ago three Chicago newsboys were arrested at their own request, and brought before a Justice, to whom they said they wanted to be sent to Bridewell. When asked the reason why by the Judge, one of the boys, who seemed to be the leader, spoke as follows:

Well, yer see, I went out dare in der winter time. De coppers pinched me for cracking a dago stand. Dey showed me how to make chairs, an' dey gave me better grub dan I can get here. I was let go an' didn't get tru learnin' de trade, an' I want ter go back so I can make a livin' some way besides shinin' or sellin' papers. Dese yer fellers want ter learn de trade, too, so dat's why we wants ter go out.

This necessity for supplying a boy who wishes to become a mechanic a means to do so, the Master Builders of the United States have taken the initiatory steps to remedy, so far as the trades in their line are concerned. At their Convention held in Cincinnati, February, 1888, it was resolved to establish trade schools which would resemble in character the Auchmuty Trade School of New York.

The members of the National Association of Master Builders in Philadelphia have already taken steps to establish such a trade school in that city, which has already set an example in manual and technical training combined with other education.

THE AUCHMUTY TRADE SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

The Auchmuty Trade School referred to is situated at First Avenue and Sixty-Seventh Street, in the City of New York. Practical instruction is there given in plumbing, plastering, bricklaying, stonecutting, house and sign painting, frescoing, wood carving, carpentry, and blacksmithing.

There are day classes and night classes, so that clerks and others working during the day, who think they can better their condition by learning a trade, can attend at night. The fees range from $10 to $35, for a three months course. The school has met with such success that several additions had to be made to its capacity since it was first established.

Several other organizations approve of the course taken by the Master Builders. If encouraged by the labor unions, there is no doubt that the trade school plan will elevate labor by encouraging those who mean to be mechanics to remain at school until well educated. The founder of this school, Colonel Auchmuty, is a gentleman of wealth and position, who takes a practical interest in the welfare of our boys, and at considerable expense is testing what can be done to make them self supporting mechanics. His views on this question are well worth recording:

The trade school system keeps boys out of the workshop, and encourages them to remain at school until well educated, and old enough to know for what sort of work they are suited. When a young man decides what calling he wants to follow, he goes to a trade

school and learns how to work, precisely as the would-be doctor, lawyer, or engineer goes to a professional school. When the trade school course of instruction is finished, and the examination with which it should conclude has been passed, the young mechanic enters the workshop. There is no difficulty in deciding what his wages should be; he is worth what he earns, as there are no back claims to satisfy. When able to do a full day's work, the young man applies for a second examination, which, when passed, entitles him to be recognized as a journeyman. It matters but little how strict this second examination is made, provided the young man is informed for what he must prepare himself. As nothing need be made for sale at a trade school, in no way does the labor of the young man come in unfair competition with that of the journeyman.

Perhaps some of your readers may say that this plan assumes that trades can be taught at a trade school. To those who doubt that such is the fact, I would quote the inscription on Sir Christopher Wren's tomb, in St. Paul's Cathedral, "Circumspice"—look around. Let them examine the work on exhibition at the New York trade schools. Besides examining the work of the plumbing class, let them look at the examination papers the young men were required to fill up, and the diagrams of faulty work they corrected. Let them visit the buildings, the walls of which were built by the young bricklayers, or see what the carpenters, stonecutters, blacksmiths, plasterers, and painters have done. The greater part of the work which, can be shown, was done by young men who had no knowledge of their trade when they came to the schools. Over fifteen hundred young men have attended the New York trade schools, and very many of them have returned, or have written to say it was a fortunate day when they crossed its threshold.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

A prevailing cause for the low rate of wages paid to women is the want of special training. First class dressmakers, cloakmakers, milliners, and tailoresses are in demand. The great work of the world for women is always crying out for trained women. Look at the signs over the doors and windows of first class dressmaking establishments, and you will generally find foreign names. Americans are few and far between. It may be the fashion, "the thing you know," for a certain class of society ladies to give the cold shoulder to their own countrywomen, and patronize only those with French names. The great majority, however, of Americans would prefer to encourage home talent and industry if the opportunity were afforded them. Industrial training for girls is one of the most important things needed by this generation. The whole force of the country is now put to training women and girls as teachers, and the profession is greatly crowded. We have three Normal Schools in this State for this work, and the cry is still for more.

Almost every girl who has to earn her own living wants to become a teacher, and as there are not enough schools and classes to be distributed around, many of them must fall back upon manual labor for a living, in any branch of which they had no previous preparation at all. What an extensive field of clean, light, well-adapted occupations there are for women if only the opportunity were afforded them for instruction. In this respect we can well afford to learn a lesson from the French people. The making of watches, musical and surgical instruments, and fancy jewelry in France is almost entirely in the hands of women. The Government printing press and the Gobelin tapestry are open to women for instruction, and they are paid wages at the same rates as men. French railway companies pay their female employés the same rates of wages as the male. M. Groult established a cookery school at Paris, at a cost of $80,000. Hamlin founded a training establishment for female silk weavers in Paris, with two hundred and fifty pupils, and with branches at St. Etienne and Lyons. The movement in France for training women in industrial pursuits was organized some twenty-five years ago, culminating in the organization of a school in the Rue de La Terle for women only. Its curriculum, besides general education, includes commercial training, industrial arts, and practical instruction in dressmaking, millinery, and all sorts of domestic sewing. Definite trades are also taught, such as printing, jewelry, wood

engraving, and drawing. The success of this school was phenomenal. Young women taught there were eagerly sought for by employers in many parts of France. Goldsmiths and jewelers established schools where women were successfully trained in the very highest branches of the work. There is a school in Paris for women who are taught clock and watchmaking. Another, where the manufacture of metals is taught. In the manufacture of pianos, harps, surgical instruments and bandages, no less than 60 per cent of the work in France is done by women especially trained for it.

In Germany schools of domestic economy for girls take precedence o most other lines of industrial education. The finest are at Baden and at Wurtemberg. Here all domestic arts are taught. In 1883 the model school of Radolfzell was started. In it girls are taught housekeeping in the most thorough manner. Male teachers instruct in the bakery, also in butter and cheese making. A male physician is in care of the sick; the other teachers are women. Length of course of instruction, five months. Instruction is free, but lodging must be paid for at the rate of 20 marks for the term.

That cookery should be taught in the public schools, and that it can be, with most satisfactory results, Juliet Corson has been assuring the public for years, and she is beginning to see the fruit of her enthusiastic labors. In several cities instruction in this art has become a regular part of the high school course. Everywhere, Miss Corson says, in a recent article, pupils receive the instruction enthusiastically, boys being quite as apt scholars as girls. A frequent comment during cooking lessons given among working people is one of surprise at the absence of dirt and disorder.

TECHNICAL TRAINING IN SAN FRANCISCO.

An effort was made four years ago to establish a school for teaching boys and girls how to make cigars, but it was not successful. A stockholders' association was formed March 12, 1884, in San Francisco. The capital stock was $75,000, divided into shares of $20 each. When the school opened six hundred and ninety boys registered their names, and two hundred and forty-two girls, whose ages ran from twelve to sixteen years. The teachers were paid $15 per week. Circulars relating to the school were sent to teachers and clergymen in San Francisco, showing its objects and inviting coöperation. There was one teacher for every fifteen pupils. The pupils were to work for three months without pay. There were accommodations in the training school for three hundred pupils. After three months' tuition places in cigar factories were to be given to the pupils. Ninety-four pupils graduated the first three months. Unfortunately, for want of proper management, the school did not succeed. The association lost by the enterprise $11,750.

The cause for establishing this school was a strike on the part of the Chinese cigarmakers. More than three thousand Chinese struck because they wanted to board themselves, instead of being obliged to board with their own bosses, who were paid 50 cents per week for each Chinaman. What brought about the loss in capital was rent, payment of teachers, and destruction of material. The last was the heaviest item. Pupils would not serve even the three months required at the start, without pay.

A school of this kind would be successful, in the opinion of Mr. Shaefer, the President of the defunct association, if placed under proper control.

CHAPTER IV.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

The kindergarten is the foundation for the manual training school. Ten years ago there was not a single free kindergarten west of the Rocky Mountains. There are now between thirty and forty in San Francisco alone, including those in orphanages, asylums, and day homes. The kindergarten system has also been engrafted on the *primary grades of the public schools of San Francisco*, all the teachers of the primary schools—over one hundred of them—having been trained for the work by the Inspectress of Kindergartens, Miss Annie Stovall, a superior kindergarten trainer. Branching out from San Francisco as a center, this system of education has spread to all parts of the State, and all over the Pacific Coast.

The kindergarten is generally limited to children of from three to seven years of age. There are four agencies employed—songs, gifts, occupations, and games.

The first gift is the ball, then spheres, cubes, and cylinders; then the divided cubes, then the plane, the line, and finally the lintel. There are sticks and rings, peas and beans, long needles and perforated paper, but no books or letters, no pens or writing paper. The occupations are perforating paper, sewing cards, blackboard drawing, weaving paper, folding paper, cutting and pasting paper, building and designing with wooden blocks, bean and pea work, and clay molding, By means of the gifts—*i. e.*, the balls, cubes, etc.—the child gains striking impressions of form, size, number, color, etc., and through them becomes familiar with all objects in the world outside. A ball classifies fruit, a round cylinder is the trunk of trees, or stem of plants, etc.; a cube is the object which a man has made, such as a house of rectangular form, etc. After a child has been given a ball, a sphere, a cube, and a cylinder, he is led into an attempt to make something. Thus he is gradually led, by means of his senses, to think, to act, to do for himself.

Froebel, the founder of the kindergarten, watched every natural instinct of a child and modeled his system of teaching upon them. The children have everything but books, and are taught everything except their letters, and there are no attempts made at reading or writing.

From Springfield, Massachusetts, comes the low benches and tables, paper, slates, and blackboards, which are all ruled in tiny squares, those on the blackboard being an inch each way.

The first occupation is to teach a child how to take little sticks of all colors, from one to five inches in length, and lay them on the table in horizontal and perpendicular lines. The next step teaches him how to draw the same on the slate. The next step, to sew the same design with the wool on bristol board, and finally the same is pricked with pins through stiff paper. This impresses the lines upon the child's memory, and then something more difficult is given him, until he is able to make what are called "inventions" of his own.

Weaving is also an occupation much liked by the children. It is done with slips of prepared paper of two colors, and a long, flat needle. The slips are prepared by one color woven under and over with the other. After a child has advanced far enough to make inventions, some very pretty and difficult things are done with these weaving slips.

Counting, form, size, direction, and to be neat and accurate, are some of the things taught incidentally in these forms of amusement. There are

tiles of wood with holes an inch apart, where designs are picked out with little wooden pegs, piecework done with wires of different length and bits of square cut cork, wire rings, paper cutting and folding, and modeling in molder's clay—a Froebelized method of making mud pies.

With the cubes and bricks all sorts of inventions are possible, but a teacher guides these efforts. Four children are seated at a table, and they are allowed to choose their own leader, and must do whatever he does. As soon as the design is finished they sing a rondo, "I am coming now to see which of the forms best pleases me," and after the inspection they decide among themselves which is the prettiest.

FIRST STEPS IN INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The beginning of industrial training is not confined to training the hand and eye alone. From the first the child is led to reconstruct, to recombine with the materials furnished him. After he has followed a dictation from the kindergartner, in which blocks, gaily colored sticks, or bright squares of pasteboard are arranged in a symmetrical design, he is required either to add to the figure according to his own fancy, to take it carefully apart and construct it again, or to construct an entirely new figure from the same materials.

After he has been in the kindergarten a sufficiently long time, his greatest delight is to "invent," to make new combinations and designs. Practical men who have looked carefully at these inventions of kindergarten children have often said that many of them would do admirably for designs in wall paper, tiles, floors, oil cloths, carpets, etc. Designs—all these—coming from the child's own brain and worked out by its own fingers, without assistance or suggestion from the kindergartner.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL ROOM.

The following details, prepared by Mrs. Kate D. S. Wiggin, the Superintendent of the Silver Street Kindergarten, will give an intelligent idea of the model school room:

The room is forty by fifty-five feet, having seven large windows. The children sit in families of fifteen or twenty, the rows facing each other in the four corners of the room, the center being left free for games, marching, gymnastics, etc., and painted in circles crossed by straight lines, as a guide to the feet. All the woodwork is painted in two shades of brown, with brilliant scarlet moldings on doors, baseboards, and windows. This, with a wide frieze of vivid red on the cream-colored wall, gives a gorgeous effect, very fascinating to the children. The walls are hung with pretty wood-cuts, engravings, and colored pictures of various kinds. This is not precisely high art, but, nevertheless, there is not a poor picture in the room. We have a piano, of course, many specimens of diverse kinds for use in object lessons, a sand table, a small aquarium, some growing plants, and many vases of flowers.

The following is a programme of the daily exercises followed by the Free Kindergarten of California:

TABLE II.

PROGRAMME.—Conversation and singing from 9 to 9:30. First period, 9:30 to 10:05. Second, 11 to 11:45. Games at 10:30. This programme has no provision for songs, games, marching, and gymnasium.

MORNING.	First Division.	Second Division.	Third Division.	Fourth Division.
Monday	Gift Lesson. — Group Work.	Pricking or Tablets. — Drawing Books.	Gift Lessons. — Drawing Books.	Dictation in Sticks, With Objects. — Weaving.
Tuesday	Dictation in Sticks. — Paper Cutting or Modeling.	Gift Lesson. — Weaving.	Pricking. — Sewing.	Drawing. — Sewing.
Wednesday	Dictation in Drawing. — Paper Folding.	Dictation in Sticks. — Sewing.	Stick Dictation. — Slate Drawing.	Gift Lessons. — Color or Modeling.
Thursday	Number. — Weaving.	Drawing Dictation. — Paper Folding.	Number. — Weaving.	Pricking. — Paper Folding.
Friday	Pricking or Sewing. — Drawing Books.	Number. — Modeling or Paper Cutting.	Color or Tablets. — Paper Folding.	Number. — Weaving.
AFTERNOON.		[Lunch.]		
Monday	Invention.	Pricking or Tablets.	Ball Exercises.	Thread Game.
Tuesday	Story, for all Divisions.			
Wednesday	Ball Exercise.	Group Work.	Chain Making, Modeling, or Sewing.	Outline Drawing.
Thursday	Thread Game.	Gymnastics.	Group Work.	Group Work.
Friday	Week's Work Completed.	Slates.	Thought Games; or Shells, Chains, or Beans.	Picture Books or Sewing.

Children from five to six years occupy First Division, and those three or four years the Fourth.

GOLDEN GATE KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION.

The rapid growth of this association is mainly due to the zeal, devotion, and untiring efforts of its President, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper. Her name is a household word among kindergarten workers. About two thousand five hundred children who are enrolled in all the kindergartens of San Francisco, have reason to bless the name of this good lady.

San Francisco stands second only to St. Louis among the cities of the United States in the extent of its kindergarten work, but yields the palm to none in the quality of that work. The rapid growth of the Golden Gate Association will be best shown by the summarized statement of progress made from year to year, as follows:

TABLE J J.

Tabulated Statement of Kindergarten Progress.

Year.	Class.	Total Enrollment.	Total Receipts.
Close of first year	Two classes	109	$1,805 70
Close of second year	Four classes	228	3,227 90
Close of third year	Five classes	297	3,446 85
Close of fourth year	Six classes	342	4,700 20
Close of fifth year	Eight classes	467	10,624 85
Close of sixth year	Twelve classes	819	14,016 15
Close of seventh year	Thirteen classes	983	16,507 92
Close of eighth year	Fifteen classes	1,105	17,307 50

The United States Commissioner of Education, Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, has kindly furnished the bureau with advanced sheets of his report on kindergartens to Congress for the year 1886–87, from which the following is taken:

There are five hundred and forty-four kindergartens reported to this office for the present year, with one thousand two hundred and fifty-six instructors and twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty-five children, a considerable increase over the year 1885–86.

The majority of kindergartens, whether giving or not giving free tuition, are still supported by private means; only one hundred and eighty-five of the whole number being supported by public funds. St. Louis, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia are the only cities in which kindergartens seem to be firmly established as a part of the public school system.

In January, 1887, the kindergartens, which for several years had been under the care of the Sub-primary School Society, of Philadelphia, were formally transferred to the Board of Education, and $15,000 were appropriated for their support. Edward T. Steel, President of the Board of Education, in accepting the care of these kindergartens in the name of the City of Philadelphia, said: "While I am earnestly in favor of what is known as higher education as a part of the public school system, I believe that it is secondary to the necessity for a perfectly organized system of instruction for the youngest children; and when these kindergartens shall become as extensive as the other grades of our school—which I believe they will—and manual training (the principle of which is one of the leading features of the kindergarten system) shall be in practice throughout all of our schools, we shall have accomplished the highest position possible to attain in a system of public education, and have fulfilled a duty in regard to youth which the enlightenment and civilization of the times demand."

Boston will soon follow the example of Philadelphia. In December, 1887, the Committee on Examination made a report on the establishment of kindergartens now supported by Mrs. Shaw, and recommended an appropriation of $20,000 for the year 1888–89 for the support of these and others in different parts of the city.

Other cities are taking steps in this direction, among them Lynn, Massachusetts; Hartford and New Haven, Connecticut; Des Moines, Iowa; and Ionia, Michigan.

For the present year there are forty-nine training schools reported, with eighty-five instructors and five hundred and twenty-four pupils. Eight of these are connected with public Normal Schools or supported by public funds, and five are supported by free kindergarten associations.

Missouri has the largest number of kindergarten pupils, six thousand and eighty-one; then follows California, two thousand eight hundred and fifteen; New York, two thousand eight hundred and thirteen; Illinois, two thousand six hundred and eighty-four; Wisconsin, two thousand four hundred and ninety-one; Pennsylvania, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine; and Massachusetts, one thousand four hundred and forty-six. All the other States enumerated in the report have less than one thousand pupils.

TABLE K K.

Statistics of Kindergartens in California for 1886–87; from Replies to Inquiries by the United States Bureau of Education.

	Post Office Address.	Name of Kindergarten.	When Established	Name of Conductor.	Number of Assistants	Pupils. Number in Kindergarten	Pupils. Number in Connecting Class	Pupils. Between what Ages Admitted	Annual Ch'g for Tuition. In Kindergarten	Annual Ch'g for Tuition. In Connecting Class	How Supported.
1	Arcata	Arcata Kindergarten	1887	Miss M. L. Cutler	1	25	----	3–7	$20	----	Tuition.
2	Berkeley	Berkeley Kindergarten	1887	Alice Halmina Byxke	1	12	----	3–8	42	----	Tuition.
3	Fresno City (J St.)	Fresno City Kindergarten	1886	Gertrude H. Wilson	----	35	12	2–10	†3	†$3	Tuition.
4	Livermore	Livermore Kindergarten	1885	Grace Kimball	0	16	0	3–8	†2½	†2½	Tuition.
5	Los Angeles (Sainsevain St.)	Sainsevain Free Kindergarten	1884	Miss Mabel Corey	1	40	----	3–6	----	----	Charity.
6	Marysville	Froebel Kindergarten and Primary School	1887	Henrietta Casebolt	1	16	11	2½–0	36	48	Tuition.
7	Mayfield	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 7	1886	Miss Mary Lindberg	1	50	---	2–6	0	----	Charity.
8	Menlo Park	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 6	1885	Miss Emma Dixon	1	50	----	2–6	0	----	Charity.
9	Oakland (1257 Jackson St.)	Miss Dyer's Kindergarten	1884	Miss Ruth Dyer	1	10	10	4–9	†5	†5	Tuition.
10	Oakland (Market and Twenty-first Sts.)	Market Street Free Kindergarten*	1883	Miss Grace E. Barnard	1	60	0	2½–6	0	----	Charity.
11	Oakland (Pacific and Peralta Sts.)	Newland Free Kindergarten	1886	Miss Elizabeth Betts	1	70	----	2½–6	0	----	Charity.
12	Oakland (659½ Broadway St.)	Oakland Free Kindergarten, No. 1	1880	Miss Abbie H. Houseman	2	90	0	2–6	0	----	Charity.
13	San Francisco (54 Clementina St.)	Adler Kindergarten	1884	Anna L. Manning	1	60	----	3–6	0	----	Charity.
14	San Francisco (1015 Leavenworth St.)	Miss Boyd's School and Kindergarten	1882	Flora S. Boyd	2	(12)		5–0	†4	†5	Tuition.
15	San Francisco (Pacific and Polk Sts.)	Buford Free Kindergarten	1882	Miss A. J. Cullen	4	64	----	2½–6	0	----	Charity.
16	San Francisco (64 Silver St.)	Crocker Kindergarten	1882	Miss Nora A. Smith	‡2	80	0	3–6	0	----	Charity.
17	San Francisco (1613 Gough St.)	Miss Ditmer's Kindergarten	1885	Miss E. Ditmer	1	20	10	3–7	45	36	Tuition.
18	San Francisco (64 Silver St.)	Eaton Kindergarten	1882	Miss Alice M. Flint	‡2	75	0	3–6	0	----	Charity.
19	San Francisco (512 Union St.)	Emily Faithful Kindergarten	1881	Miss Cora Griffin	1	50	0	2–6	0	----	Charity.
20	San Francisco (934½ Harrison St.)	First Congregational Church Kindergarten	1884	Miss Charlotte F. Williams	1	65	----	2–6	0	----	Charity.
21	San Francisco (334 Beale St.)	Flora Sharon Kindergarten	1886	Mrs. Sumner Johnson	1	86	0	2–6	0	----	Charity.
22	San Francisco (512 Union St.)	Hearst Kindergarten	1883	Miss Eva Taylor	1	50	0	2–6	0	----	Charity.

23	San Francisco (512 Union St.)	Helping Hand Kindergarten	1887	Miss Nellie Moore	0	38		2½–6	0		Charity.
24	San Francisco	Jackson Street Kindergarten	1879	Miss Belle Scott	2	80	0	2–6	0		Charity.
25	San Francisco (116 Jackson St.)	Jackson Street Produce Exchange Kindergarten	1884	Miss Belle Scott	1	30	0	2–6	0		Charity.
26	San Francisco (512 Union St.)	Kahler Free Kindergarten	1887	Miss Stella Stovall	0	50	0	2–6	0		Charity.
27	San Francisco (Fulton St., near Franklin)	Kindergarten, Children's Day Home									
28	San Francisco (Dolores and Seventeenth Sts.)	Kindergarten, College of Notre Dame	1886		2	50		4–8			Tuition.
29	San Francisco (421 First St.)	Kindergarten, Convent of Our Lady of Mercy	1882	Sister Mary Elizabeth	3	67		2–6			Tuition.
30	San Francisco	Kindergarten, Ladies' Protection and Relief Society									
31	San Francisco (1018 Folsom St.)	Kindergarten, No. 4	1880	Lucy J. Gamble	1	60	0	3–6	0		Charity.
32	San Francisco	Kindergarten, Protestant Orphan Asylum	1881								
33	San Francisco (218 Brannan St.)	Mail Dock Kindergarten	1886	Miss Mary J. Scheutze	1	62		2½–6	0		Charity.
34	San Francisco (1810 Sacramento St.)	Model Kindergarten*	1880	Miss Emma Marrvedel		30		3–12			Tuition.
35	San Francisco (514 Howard St.)	Occidental Kindergarten	1880	Fredrica Fox	0	36	0	3–6			Charity.
36	San Francisco (Twenty-sixth and Bartlett Sts.)	Pacific Kindergarten, No. 1	1886	Mrs. M. E. Arnold		70	0	2½–6	0		Charity.
37	San Francisco (Eighth and Harrison Sts.)	Pacific Kindergarten, No. 2	1886	Mrs. M. E. Arnold		80	0	2½–6	0		Charity.
38	San Francisco (64 Silver St.)	Peabody Kindergarten	1883	Miss Helen M. Garrison	‡1	40	0	3–6	0		Charity.
39	San Francisco (1519 Sacramento St.)	Private School and Kindergarten	1879	Mrs. Mary E. Ward	1	9	0	4–0	35		Tuition.
40	San Francisco (806 Sansome St.)	Silver Star Kindergarten	1884	Miss Bertha H. Bossé	3	100	0	3–6	0		Charity.
41	San Francisco (1906 Mason St.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 1	1884	Miss Louise Patch	1	80		2–6	0		Charity.
42	San Francisco (1906 Mason St.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 2	1884	Miss May Loveland	1	80		2–6	0		Charity.
43	San Francisco (Eighth and Brannan Sts.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 3	1884	Miss Jennie Wheaton	2	152	0	2–6	0		Charity.
44	San Francisco (Eighth and Brannan Sts.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 4	1885	Miss Anna Herrick	2	73	0	2–6	0		Charity.
45	San Francisco (3270 Mission St.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten, No. 5	1885	Miss Mary Gamble	2	85	0	2–6	0		Charity.
46	San Francisco (Capp and Seventeenth Sts.)	Stanford Free Kindergarten		Miss Lily Ransom	1	68	0	3–6	0		Charity.
47	San Francisco (Webster and Fulton Sts.)	Williard Kindergarten	1884	Miss Jennie C. Parker and Mrs. Annie S. Porter	0	52		2½–7			Tuition and charity.
48	San Francisco (922 Post St.)	Zeitska Institute Kindergarten	1876	Mrs. Taubmann	1	25	20	3–7	50	75	Tuition.
49	San José (253 Balbach St.)	German-American Kindergarten	1885	Miss Anna L. Wehner	1	20	4	3–8	†5	†5	Tuition.

*From the report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1885–6. † Charge per month. ‡ Also assisted by pupils of the California Kindergarten Training School.

TABLE K K—Continued.

	Post Office Address.	Name of Kindergarten.	When Established.	Name of Conductor.	Number of Assistants.	Pupils. Number in Kindergarten.	Pupils. Number in Connecting Class.	Pupils. Between what Ages Admitted.	Annual Ch'g for Tuition. In Kindergarten.	Annual Ch'g for Tuition. In Connecting Class.	How Supported.
51	San José	Model Kindergarten, University of the Pacific	1887	Miss Willette A. Allen	2	20	....	4–6	$40	....	Tuition.
52	San José (Santa Clara St.)	Notre Dame Kindergarten	1886		4	100	....	3–6	....	....	Tuition and charity.
53	San José (Guadalupe St.)	San José Kindergarten	1886	Miss Eva Mackenzie	1	44	....	5–7	0	....	Public funds.
54	San Rafael (Fourth and C Sts.)	San Rafael Kindergarten	1887	Miss Eva Pettit	2	40	....	3–6	....	....	Tuition and charity.
55	Santa Cruz (Temperance Hall, Mission St.)	Froebel Kindergarten	1886	Alice R. D. Gardner and Miss Adele J. Willard	....	12	8	3–10	†2½	†$2½	Tuition.

† Charge per month.

SAN FRANCISCO PUBLIC KINDERGARTEN.

The Superintendent of Public Schools in San Francisco, in his report for 1886–7, says: "The introduction of any portion of the work into our public schools is as yet simply an experiment, the wisdom of which time alone can test. The system can not be rendered efficient without a thorough training of the teachers in its principles and practice, and, therefore, I think that the Board of Education has acted wisely in affording proper opportunities to teachers to acquaint themselves with the principles of the system. If this system of instruction can be made a successful and valuable adjunct to our public schools, it will be only by means of a class of teachers specially and well trained in the nature of it, and in the proper modes of employing or adopting it in connection with their work. The virtue of the kindergarten methods no one can gainsay; but they can be made available with children in all grades of school work only when rightly comprehended by the teachers."

CALIFORNIA KINDERGARTEN TRAINING SCHOOL.

The want of having trained teachers for kindergarten work will soon, if not already, be supplied by the training school in Silver Street, San Francisco, under the able superintendence of Mrs. Kate D. S. Wiggin.

The following particulars relating to this school are taken from her report:

The system of training requires nine months, and during that time the students are obliged, in order to gain the necessary practice and opportunity of observation, to assist in the kindergarten three days each week. This enables us to take charge of more children with less paid teachers. There is no lack of individualizing, however. The children are divided into "families" of twenty or twenty-two, according to their ages, and presided over by one teacher, either the head kindergartner, paid assistant, or student. The superintendent trains two assistants specially for Silver Street; therefore they teach there throughout the school year, and being with the same children daily acquire good management and succeed admirably after two or three months' experience. This gives us three head kindergartners, one trained assistant (paid not by the society, but by the teacher of the Crocker class), and two regular student teachers—six persons in all. The other students alternate in the care of classes.

The training school furnishes eleven assistants to the kindergartens of the Golden Gate Association, six to kindergartens of other charitable associations, and sends its students to observe and lend a helping hand wherever their services are specially needed.

An informal conversational examination of candidates is always held by the teachers whenever an applicant for training presents herself. The necessary qualifications are: fair general culture, including, if possible, some scientific knowledge of plants and animals, but, especially, love of children, love of teaching, refinement of moral sentiment and manners, and ability to sing.

The sessions are held three times a week, but most of the intervening time will be necessarily taken up in study, writing abstracts of lectures on the gifts and occupations, and practical work and observation in the kindergarten.

If, after one or two months' study, it shall be found that any person has mistaken her vocation, she will be at liberty to withdraw from the class. It is not every good and intelligent person that can make a good kindergartner, but only those of suitable temperament.

Any pupil may study an additional half or whole year without charge.

CHAPTER V.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

In an investigation of this character it is well to know what other countries are doing in the same direction, and a brief summary of the condition and progress of technical education in Europe will not be out of place in this report.

A commission, composed of distinguished and eminently practical men, was appointed by the English Government in 1881 "to inquire into the instruction of the industrial classes of certain foreign countries in technical and other subjects, and into the influence of said instruction on manufacturing and other industries at home and abroad." Their report appeared in full in 1885, and it gave an exhaustive account of the condition of technical education in Europe. A bill was introduced at the last and another at the present session of Parliament "to make further provisions for technical instruction" in England, but was not acted upon in consequence of the pressure of business in other directions. It was based upon the facts furnished by the commission, which showed that England was behind in the race of mechanical and manufacturing progress.

With reference to the progress of technical education the report says:

Technical high schools now exist in nearly every continental State, and are the recognized channel for the instruction of those who are intended to become the technical directors of industrial establishments. Many of the technical chemists have, however, been and are being trained in the German universities. Your commissioners believe that the success which has attended the foundation of extensive manufacturing establishments, engineering shops, and other works on the continent, could not have been achieved to its full extent, in the face of many retarding influences, had it not been for the system of high technical instruction in these schools, for the facilities for carrying on original scientific investigation, and for the general appreciation of the value of that instruction and of original research which is felt in those countries.

With the exception of the École Centrale of Paris, all these schools have been created and are maintained almost entirely at the expense of the several States, the fees of the students being so low as to constitute only a very small proportion of the total income. The buildings are palatial, the laboratories and museums are costly and extensive, and the staff of professors, who are well paid according to the continental standard, is so numerous as to admit of the utmost subdivision of the subjects taught. The numerous young Germans and Swiss, who are glad to find employment in our own manufactories, have almost without exception been educated in one or other of the continental polytechnic schools.

Your commissioners cannot repeat too often that they have been impressed with the general intelligence and technical knowledge of the masters and managers of industrial establishments on the continent. They have found that these persons, as a rule, possess a sound knowledge of the sciences upon which their industry depends. They are familiar with every new scientific discovery of importance and appreciate its applicability to their special industry. They adopt not only the inventions and improvements made in their own country, but also those of the world at large, thanks to their knowledge of foreign languages and of the conditions of manufacture prevalent elsewhere.

SCHOOLS TO TRAIN FOREMEN.

The creation abroad of technical schools for boys intending to become foremen is of much more recent date than that of the polytechnic schools. To this statement the foundation during the First Empire of the three French Ecoles des Arts et Métiers, at Châlons, Aix, and Angers, is only an apparent exception, because they simply vegetated until their reorganization within the last twenty-five or thirty years. Mining schools were, however, established in Prussia in the last century, and in France about 1817. Among the examples of schools for foremen are those of Winterthur in Switzerland, Chemnitz in Saxony, and Komotau in the Austrian dominions, principally for engineers, and the École des Mines at St. Étienne, the latter more especially for mining and metallurgy. The theoretical instruction in these schools is similar in character but inferior in degree to that of the great polytechnic schools. On the other hand considerable attention is devoted in these schools to practical instruction in laboratories and workshops, which is not the case in polytechnic schools. In Prussia a beginning has been made in the establishment of such secondary technical schools, but, in the words of the report, "its execution will be tedious and costly." In Bavaria the Industrie-Schulen, which are technical schools of a grade inferior to the polytechnic school, give both theoretical and practical instruction, the latter in some cases highly specialized, in preparation either for direct entrance on an industrial career, or for further study in the polytechnic school. In France technical schools of a somewhat lower type are being established all over the country. The one at Rheims, previously described, is an excellent example of these schools. The boys from the Rheims school either enter the Ecole des Arts et Métiers at Châlons, or go into manufactories or into business, in each case with a fair knowledge of theory and manipulation, as mechanics or as chemists.

It is important to bear in mind that the French schools of the type of that at Rheims, though virtually advanced schools, now rank as superior elementary schools, to which the pupils are consequently entitled to claim admission without the payment of any fees.

ART SCHOOLS FOR ARTISANS.

With reference to the subject of drawing, we cannot too often call attention to the extraordinary efforts which are being made abroad for instruction in art, more especially as applied to industrial and decorative purposes, and to the important influence of this instruction in furnishing employment for artisans on the continent. In nearly all the places abroad which your commissioners have visited, they have found that drawing is an obligatory subject of instruction in the primary school, and that it is regarded as of equal importance with writing. The number of hours which the children devote to lessons in drawing abroad is frequently as many as three per week, whereas in England the subject is not only not obligatory, but in about three fourths of our elementary schools no instruction whatever is given in this subject, and in those schools in which drawing is taught the time devoted to it rarely exceeds one hour per week, and even that not always regularly. This want of attention, together with the absence of competent teachers, proper models and methods, and adequate inspection, fully accounts for the inferiority to which we have referred. Your commissioners are of the opinion that sound instruction in the rudiments of drawing should be incorporated with writing in all primary schools, both for girls and boys, by which, also, according to the experience of competent authorities, the writing would be much improved. Something in this direction has already been done.

We are of opinion that more attention than has hitherto been devoted to it should be directed to the subject of modeling in the elementary schools. Modeling is an exercise of great importance to the future workman, and its rudiments can well be taken up, as in continental schools, at the earliest age.

Your commissioners see no reason why, since grants are made on needlework in girls' schools, they should not be made on manual work in boys' schools. This instruction may be given so as not to interfere with the ordinary work of the school. It has been proved that this can be done, the boys being most eager to return for handicraft teaching after school hours.

Whenever more attention shall be given to drawing, and especially to mechanical and geometrical drawing, in the ordinary and the higher elementary schools, it will be proper and desirable that the work executed in the shops attached to these schools should be made from drawings prepared by the children themselves.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Manual instruction in the schools of France is now firmly established, although fifteen years ago there was but one school in that country in which technical instruction was combined with other elementary education. Tool instruction is now given to pupils of ten years and upwards in all the free public schools of Paris, under the compulsory law of 1882.

In all the primary schools of Paris drawing is taught from models and casts, in preference to flat examples and copies. In addition to the municipal apprenticeship schools of France, there are two other kinds which are largely attended, viz.: (1) apprenticeship schools, sustained by great corporations for the benefit of children of their employés; and (2) those conducted by charitable associations. These schools do not confine themselves to teaching a single trade. The French Government sustains many simple apprenticeship schools, the main effect of each being to foster some trade, as the watchmaking school at Sevres. A review of the reports of the British Royal Commissioners on Technical Education, by C. O. Thompson, contains the following additional particulars relating to French technical schools:

The primary communal school of the Rue Tournefort was for a long time the only school in France in which trade teaching was combined with other elementary education; now it has many imitators. It was started on its present footing in 1873. It appears that the French add the shop work to the time spent in what may be called literary work. In the lowest class the children are six years old, and receive three lessons a week, of one hour each, in handicraft. From ten years old and until graduation they have eighteen hours in the shop. There are three hundred and sixty children in this school, and they are generally able to earn, on graduating, at the age of thirteen to fifteen, about $1 a week.

The studies of the school are drawing, modeling, molding, and carving; arthmetic and geometry; geography and history; physics; anatomy, physiology, and hygiene; French reading and writing; and civil government, technology, and morals. The duties of the workshop are lathe and forge work, joinery, and a little higher machine work.

The reports of the inspectors tending to cast some suspicion on the quality of the literary work of this school, the authorities of the City of Paris, in their further experi-

ments in the introduction of manual training into ordinary primary schools, have confined themselves to teaching more advanced drawing from models, and the use of ordinary tools for working wood and iron, without attempting to teach special trades. There are about fifty schools where these experiments are in progress. It is already apparent that the shop work tends to concentrate along the lines of dominant French industries, and the effort to avoid teaching trades will not be very successful.

These schools must not be confounded with another sort, viz.: the municipal apprenticeship schools, from which they are quite distinct, in respect to the age of the pupils, the course of study, and the end in view. The most famous of these is that in the Boulevard de la Villette, which has been in operation since December 8, 1872.

It is a day school, designed to fit boys to be good artisans, and proves its success by pointing to the large number of its graduates who have been successful in the fields for which the school prepared them. No pretense is made that the shop work serves any educational purpose other than to teach the boys to use tools and machines. The hours are from 7 A. M. to 7 P. M., six days a week for three years, allowing two hours a day for meals and recreation. The boys enter at fourteen. During the first two years they work four hours in the school and six in the shops. In the third year, two in the school and eight in the shops. In the first year they are taught the nature and conversion of material; in the second they pass to actual construction. In the first year the work is uniform for all; in the second, a trade must be chosen and followed.

In 1881-82 there were two hundred and fifty pupils; one hundred and seven in the first year, eighty-one in the second, and sixty-two in the third. The number of absentees did not equal 7 per cent of the whole, and was mainly confined to the entering class. A considerable number leave at the end of the first year for many causes, usually because they are unfit for the work. Those who leave at the end of the second year generally find remunerative employment.

The annual cost of maintenance is about $15,000, or a little less than $60 per pupil.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

The consular officer of the United States in Mayence, Germany, Mr. J. H. Smith, writes that there are about two hundred and fifty technical schools in Germany. The textile and metallurgical industries especially are well taught in these schools.

Mr. Samuel Smith, the well known member of Parliament, says:

There is no such thing as an uneducated class in Germany. There are no such things, speaking broadly, as neglected and uncared for children.

No honest observer can doubt that in many respects the Germans are already ahead of us (the English), and they are making far more rapid progress than we are.

They are applying technical science to every department of industry in a way that Englishmen have little idea of. Their polytechnics and their practical technical schools are far ahead of anything we possess in England: the leaders of industry are far better trained; the workmen are far better educated, and far more temperate and thrifty than ours are. Wherever the Germans and English come into competition upon equal terms, the Germans are beating us, because they are organized, disciplined, and better trained than we are.

Here is a description of the technical schools at Chemnitz, taken from a report of the United States Bureau of Education:

There is no polytechnic or technical high school where shop work is required as a preliminary condition of admission, but the Royal Foremen School at Chemnitz, of the secondary order, affords a good example of how this plan may be pursued.

Chemnitz is a Saxon town of ninety thousand inhabitants who are principally employed in the following establishments, viz.: Forty-six machine shops for machine building, ten loom works, three hoisery frame factories, and eighty-two cotton, woolen, and silk mills. The manufacture of hoisery and gloves is the leading industry. The only locomotive works in Saxony, Hartmann's, is in Chemnitz, and employs about two thousand men. The town is sometimes called the Manchester of Germany.

General education is assiduously cultivated and is of the most thorough sort; in fact, it is the strong foundation upon which technical schools securely rest.

In addition to this, continuation schools are maintained in the evening, three hours each, for those who, through misfortune of any kind, have failed to secure the essential advantages of the public instruction. There were nine hundred and ninety-three of these Fortbildung scholars in Chemnitz in 1878.

Technical education in Chemnitz is conducted partly by the State and partly by corporations. The State has a group of schools, which are all in the new buildings on the Schiller Platz, completed in 1877. Here are one hundred and thirty rooms, with an aggregate area of ninety-five thousand square feet, six hundred and twenty-five students in attendance, and fifty-two instructors. The annual expense of maintenance in 1883 was

$46,200, or $70 86 per student. The buildings cost $439,715. The same buildings and accommodations in Worcester, Massachusetts, a city of about the same size and sort, would cost at least $700,000.

The State technical schools are the Higher Technical School, with one hundred and fifty-three students; the Royal Building School, with one hundred and seventy students; the Royal Foremen School, with two hundred and thirty students; the Royal Drawing School, with one hundred and eleven students; or a total, less twelve twice reckoned, of six hundred and fifty-two students.

CHAPTER VI.

OPINIONS ON MANUAL TRAINING AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Governor Bartlett cordially approved of my proposition to further his views upon industrial education by making it one of the special subjects of investigation by this bureau. It was his intention, had he lived, as conveyed to me by his own lips, to give practical proof of the intense interest he felt in the subject, by either founding a school for industrial training himself, or doing so in coöperation with others.

In order to ascertain how far the views of the Governor were concurred in by public opinion, I followed the example of the distinguished Commissioner of Labor of New York, Mr. Charles F. Peck, and communicated by a circular letter with a large number of citizens throughout the State. I regret to say that the responses were few and far between, but there is a sufficient number to show what a concensus of opinion there is on the advisability of introducing manual training in connection with our public school system.

The following questions were addressed by this bureau to a large number of teachers and persons likely to be interested in the question of education:

1. What, in your opinion, are the relative percentages of pupils in your county who study for the learned professions, clerical and commercial pursuits, agriculture, mining, and mechanical industries or trades?
2. What are the facilities, if any, for a boy or girl learning a trade in your county?
3. Do you favor manual or technical training as a part of the public school system of this State?
4. What should be the scope or extent of this training?
5. What particular branches of technical knowledge would you deem best for the interests of your section of the State?
6. Do you favor an apprenticeship law, and for what reason?
7. Are skilled mechanics in your county, such as are engaged in watch making, gold, silver, and jewelry work, engraving, lithographing, wood cutting and carving, ornamental painting, decorating, and other high grades of mechanical labor, of American or foreign birth?

In reply to the first question—

First—What, in your opinion, are the relative percentages of pupils in your county who study for the learned professions, clerical and commercial pursuits, agriculture, mining, and mechanical industries and trades?

The answers received were so indefinite and unsatisfactory that it would be useless to give them.

In reply to the second question—

Second—What are the facilities, if any, for a boy or girl learning a trade in your county?

The School Superintendents of the following counties answered as follows:

Contra Costa: "The number of places open to boys is limited and cannot supply the demand. The boys who wish to learn a trade are of necessity compelled to seek the cities and enter the large shops."

Del Norte: "None, save by ordinary workmen."

Kern: "Poor."

Lassen: "Almost none."

Los Angeles: "Can't answer intelligently."

Nevada: "Very poor; the plain blacksmith's trade is about all a boy can learn here."

San Luis Obispo: "Such as are offered by the limited number of shops."

The Principal of the Normal School of San José, County of Santa Clara: "There are no facilities for learning a trade. We give a practical course in chemistry and mechanics, and are now fitting up rooms for giving some prominence to industrial pursuits, hoping to give considerable manual training. We shall do wood work and some metal work."

Tehama: "Confined to only a few trades."

Trinity: "A few blacksmith and carpenter shops."

Tuolumne: "Very poor."

In reply to the questions—

Third—Do you favor manual or technical training as a part of the public school system of this State?

Fourth—What should be the scope or extent of this training?

Fifth—What particular branches of technical knowledge would you deem best for the interests of your section of the State?

The following answers were received from the same gentlemen:

Superintendent W. A. Kirkwood, of Contra Costa: "Third.—I do favor such a system. Fourth.—In town schools I think the rudiments of several trades might be taught; I think only the rudiments of a trade should be attempted. In country districts little or nothing can be accomplished. Fifth.—Agriculture in all its branches. The study of materials for building; the use of tools; housework and sewing; civil engineering."

Superintendent S. G. Wright, of Del Norte: "Third.—To such an extent as would furnish a basis on which they may become good workmen. Fifth.—The lines would be for this country, mechanics as applied to the lumber business, and agriculture as applied to dairying."

Superintendent J. H. Shannon, of Inyo: "Third.—I do; especially where it can be done systematically in large, graded schools. Here I do not think it possible, our terms being short and our teachers overworked in the general course of study; also entirely without the conveniences, with no available means of obtaining such. Fourth.—The scope of the question covers considerable ground. If for our young ranchers, I would say a pretty thorough training in the use of carpenter's tools, harness work, and painting. Fifth.—In our section, metallurgy, civil engineering, mechanical drawing."

Superintendent Myra A. Parks, of Lassen: "Third.—In my opinion manual or technical training should form a part of the public school system of this State, and to such an extent as shall give the pupil an insight into the various branches of industry, and guide him in his choice of that occupation to which his nature is best adapted. Fifth.—The branches best adapted to this section of country would be scientific farming and carpentry."

Superintendent A. J. Tiffany, of Nevada: "Third.—I favor it in San Francisco, and perhaps in a few of the larger cities. Fourth.—It should be thorough training in the elements only. Fifth.—Mining and engineering."

Supeintendent W. W. Armstrong, of San Luis Obispo: "Third.—I am in favor of technical education in our public schools, and would urge that a liberal proportion of the public funds be devoted to that purpose, instead of its being expended, as at present, in the maintenance of high schools, or

for any other purpose beyond an ordinary common school education. This technical training should not fall short of fitting our young men and women for the ordinary useful pursuits of life. In my judgment, one of the most fruitful causes of discontent among our common people is the prevailing system of education, which, while it takes from seven to twelve years of the child's life, simply educates them to the point of looking with disdain upon manual labor, and fails to so equip them that they may avoid its necessity. The experiments in the direction of technical training covered by State Normal Schools, the Normal Branch of the Girls' High School in your city, and the commercial classes, have certainly been so satisfactory as to greatly encourage its advocates. The recent legislation affecting the grammar school course is in the right direction, and it would seem that we are just ready for the establishment of technical or industrial schools in connection especially with those schools which have elected to pursue the grammar school course. The next Legislature should not fail to take further steps toward this end. I shall be glad at some future time to outline a plan of establishing at least one industrial school in each county."

Professor Chas. H. Allen, of Santa Clara: "Not as a part of the system coequal with the other work of schools. I think the State might wisely extend a helping hand to encourage private manual schools. The public school work is now overburdened and needs relief, not additional work. In the private schools as wide as the patronage demands. At first preparatory to any trade, and afterwards differentiating to suit the calls. Orchardry, unquestionably; this comprising growing of trees, budding, grafting, hybridizing, as well as all means for protecting growing trees and fruits, and the best processes of curing, packing, and marketing."

School Superintendent L. W. Valentine, of Tehama County, answers: "To a certain extent I favor manual training. It should not extend further than those rudiments which are common to most of the trades, or at any rate to a large proportion of them, and the kind of instruction would vary slightly with the locality. Our section of the State is agricultural, and the instruction given in our schools should, so far as practicable, be such as will fit our children for such pursuits. The branches of technical instruction taken should to a large extent be optional with the pupils' parents. Practical agriculture should be taught in all schools, and also the rudiments of the trades. If a boy expects to devote himself to agricultural pursuits, he should have the option of taking those branches of special instruction as will prepare him for this, and vice versa."

From Professor Joseph Le Conte, M.D., LL.D., Professor of Geology and Natural History, State University:

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA,
BERKELEY, CAL., January 13, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

I received your letter and circular to-day. I wish I had time to answer as fully as its importance deserves. This, however, seems hardly necessary, as I have recently expressed my views on this subject in an address before the Teachers Association at their last meeting at Berkeley. This address, I suppose, will shortly be published. In the meantime, however, I will now give a bare outline of most important points:

First—I do very earnestly favor the introduction of *manual training* as a part of our public school system.

Second—Your second question opens a very wide field of thought. You will observe that I use the term manual training instead of industrial training. I have done so because this term better expresses my view as to the main object of the introduction of hand work into the schools. Industrial or technical schools are liberally supported by many European Governments. They are intended as a direct preparation for industrial life. They are a Government help to the industrial classes. These classes become thus, in some sense, the beneficiaries of the Government. Now we in this country do not recognize any such classes in the schools; nor do the industrial classes ask any special help from the Government. Our schools are intended only to make efficient men and women.

If these views are correct, then hand training ought to be introduced into the schools, not only because it prepares for industrial life, but also and *chiefly* because it is a fundamentally important agent of mind training. It is not intended specially for any class, but equally for all. Not the artisan alone, but every one ought to have perfect use of hand, because without it the most thoroughly efficient manhood is impossible. In our schools we have drifted too far from the method of nature, where hand and eye and brain work together in mutual help. We must come back to it.

As to the best practical mode of carrying out these principles, I do not think myself competent to advise; I leave it to those better acquainted by experience with school methods than myself.

Very respectfully yours,

JOSEPH LE CONTE.

Professor C. H. McGrew, of San José, would have industrial education permeate all our public school work:

SAN JOSÉ, CALIFORNIA, January 14, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

I take pleasure in answering the questions of your favor of the twelfth instant:

First—I am decidedly in favor of manual training or industrial education as a part of our public school system. The hand and the eye are the shortest avenues to the brain. In fact, the hand is, so to speak, the balance-wheel of the mind. Through the hand and the eye we get most of our ideas; the skillful hand and the cultured brain have given us all our civilizations, and make man superior to the brute. That man whose eye, hand, and brain work in unison and harmony, is the most highly educated. Manual training is necessary to build the exact imagination, cultivate a sound judgment, and give that practical knowledge of human affairs and life called common sense; and besides cultivating the powers of the mind and furnishing it with facts, manual training is necessary to cultivate the *expressive* and *creative* powers of the mind. Our current methods of instruction are most defective in teaching all-side expression and creativity. Our schools pour in, after the fashion, until the pupils are like full bags, they cannot bend; and they cannot *express* and *create* anything. Manual training teaches through experience, learns by doing, and cultivates at least two forms of expression, scarcely touched by our schools, viz.: constructing, making, and representing, as in drawing and modeling. To make a thing and draw or model it, is one of the most natural things for the child, and appeals to his instincts of activity and creativity.

I would have industrial education permeate all our public school work, in connection with every subject taught. In the primary and secondary schools, solely for its educational value; for what it is worth in sense culture and hand training; for its value in giving the mind living, interesting, and practical knowledge; for its value in directing the child's activities and cultivating the faculties naturally and harmoniously; and especially for its culture of the expressive and creative powers. Let me repeat, I would have it in all primary and secondary schools mainly for its educational value and its power *to bring out natural aptitudes and special endowments*, and not for the purpose of teaching little children or even boys and girls trades and crafts. But I would have it in our colleges, universities, and polytechnic schools, for the purpose of fitting young men and women for their life work in their special lines.

Second—I am fully convinced that this industrial education should be begun in the kindergarten, as the first grade of our public school system, because the kindergarten is the only scientific and systematic method of cultivating the senses and training the hands of little children. Children should be received at four and have at least two years kindergarten training, and then pass into the primary on the same principle and method. I would extend the manual training of the kindergarten into all higher grades up to the high school. And in the high school there should be courses of study in manual training for both boys and girls parallel with the courses in languages, mathematics, physical and natural science, all aiming to prepare boys and girls to enter upon some special line of work in the university. So I would have manual training to extend from the kindergarten to the university, inclusive; below the high school for all children, rich and poor, and at the high school manual training should converge into courses leading to some special industrial course in the university. This will give opportunity for choice and the development of special aptitude, which will be brought out before the boy and girl reach the high school grade.

Something must be done in this direction. Our schools are not giving forth the harvests of character, the manhood and womanhood, they should. There is something wrong when the majority of young men graduating from our colleges would prefer to accept a $50 clerkship, instead of fitting themselves for positions of mechanical or civil engineers, at salaries from $2,000 to $4,000, which they could do in the same time. Society does not need more graduates; they are fast increasing the ranks of the worthless. Society needs men and women fitted to take up some special line of work, and do it better than it has ever been done before. Industrial education in its true sense will enable us to produce such men and women, and correct many of these narrow and false ideas of life and human worth. I do not hold the school responsible for all of them.

Society, the church, State, and all social agencies must come in for a part, but our schools must bear a portion—more for what they have not done than for what they do.

I could give other reasons for the faith that is in me on this great subject, but trust these will be enough.

Yours truly,

C. H. McGREW,
Prof. Ed. Psychology, Science, and Art of Teaching.

Mr. J. B. McChesney, of the Oakland High School, would not engraft manual training upon the State system of schools, but leaves it for the consideration of municipal governments:

OAKLAND, January 13, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: Your printed circular requesting my opinion on the subject of manual training in the public schools in the State is at hand.

It is difficult to express my opinion on this subject briefly, without a fear of being misunderstood.

The term "industrial training" conveys a variety of ideas to the ordinary citizen, and as long as any misapprehension exists as to the meaning of the subject under discussion, all argument pro or con must necessarily be futile.

I believe in the complete education of the child; by this I mean the education of the hands and body; of the intellect and of the feelings; thus enabling him to do, to know, and to love, *i. e.*, he must be able to labor to comprehend truth and to love it. Every person who is not fairly well developed in each of these directions is more or less an element of danger in every representative government.

If my position is correct, it follows that:

First—The child should be taught to labor.

Second—That knowledge should be imparted to him which will enable him to intelligently perform the duties of citizenship.

Third—His moral nature should be so developed that his influence shall be in favor of justice and the right.

Heretofore, the State has undertaken the second, leaving the parent to attend to the first and third. At present, the trend of public opinion is in favor of having the second also cared for by the State. I believe in it to this extent and with this qualification: municipalities may give instruction in manual training, because very few parents in cities are so situated that they can give this training, however much they may wish to do so. In the country the conditions are entirely different. I therefore would not engraft this department upon the State system of schools, but leave it for the consideration of municipal governments.

The qualification is this. Trades should not be taught. The object should be to train the hand and eye in the use of tools, so that, if in after life he may wish to become a carpenter or a blacksmith, he may enter upon the acquisition of his trade with a certain preliminary equipment.

As stated above, the State for years has undertaken the second of my propositions; there is a strong pressure being exerted to have it undertake the first. By the same line of argument, and with equal if not with greater force, it may be shown that it should take up the third, *i. e.*, teach the existence and attributes of God, giving thereby a substantial and reasonable basis for the moral law.

As it is impracticable for me at the present time to enter upon an argument on these far reaching questions, I will content myself with simply stating my opinions.

Very respectfully yours,

J. B. McCHESNEY,
Oakland High School.

Mr. W. W. Anderson, of the Sacramento High School, considers it just as necessary to train the hand and eye as the mind. Boys and girls ought to learn the first grades:

SACRAMENTO, January 13, 1888.

J. J. TOBIN, *Esq., Commissioner of Labor, San Francisco:*

DEAR SIR: It would be difficult to state fully my views on the points referred to in your favor of yesterday, in the time at my disposal. Perhaps, however, I can make myself clearly understood in a few words.

First—Yes, if manual training is meant; but if teaching trades is meant, most decidedly *no*.

The former is possible; is desirable; is urgently needed. The latter is chimerical, and is undesirable even if it were possible.

There is no limit that can be given logically to the power of the State to provide for education. The State has the right to do whatever is necessary for the welfare of its citizens. It is necessary for the welfare of the State that its citizens be intelligent and able to think each for himself. Otherwise they will be under the control of demagogues, and the electoral franchise become potential for dangerous legislation. The questions that are forcing themselves to the front, and that must sooner or later be settled at the polls, are questions

requiring careful study to be acted upon intelligently. The electors, therefore, ought to be able to think, as only intelligent persons can think, in order to settle these questions. That is only one of many reasons that justify the maintenance of an efficient system of education comprehending all grades of schools, from the kindergarten to the university.

But it is equally necessary that the citizens be able to provide each for himself and for those dependent on him. To do this each should be educated in all respects. We have hitherto turned our attention exclusively to the development of the mental faculties. It has been supposed that at home, in some way, the hand and eye would be sufficiently cultivated. When boys could not buy for a trifle all kinds of toys and every means of amusement, and when, from the circumstances of the case, boys and girls had to take no small share in the home duties, the young people grew up, to some extent, accustomed to work, and left the home impressed with the idea that work was a necessity imposed upon all. If they wanted to learn a trade they served an apprenticeship which insured considerable skill in their trade, and which involved a system of examinations to test their proficiency.

Now all this is changed. Young people can buy for a trifle what would cost considerable effort to make. Their own personal wants, therefore, do not lead them to the use of tools, or to attempt anything requiring skill. Home life is very different from what it was thirty or forty years ago. For both these reasons, therefore, our young people grow up unable to use their hands for any useful purpose.

The apprenticeship system is dead. Boys who want to learn a trade cannot do so. Not only so, but workmen themselves object to the employment of apprentices. Moreover, the introduction of machinery is more and more doing away with many branches of every trade. He who learns only one special department or branch of any trade is continually in danger of being supplanted by newly invented machinery. He is mos fully equipped for life who is most intelligent, whose mind is best trained, and who has the best command of hand and eye. It is just as necessary that he have the latter as the former.

Now, trade or work schools would largely defeat their own object. They would teach trades that are continually being revolutionized by machinery. Suppose a shoemaking shop was established. Either it would involve a large amount of machinery, run at great expense, or it would require a shop in which all the operations would be done by hand. If the former, boys would, at great expense, be taught only certain parts of shoemaking, or would have to spend a long time to master all its details, and then find all or much they had learned a "lost art" from new inventions. In the latter case, they would have a trade which is rapidly disappearing. With more or less force the same objection would lie against any workshop as part of the school system. Then see the numberless trades that would have to be taught.

There could, however, be no objection whatever to the establishment of one or two such work schools, to teach a special trade, where that trade is the great business of the community (if such a community could be found), as is the case in European countries. It is especially true of agriculture. In one or two States, and in a province of Canada, an agricultural school has been established with the best results. These schools, where best, attempt nothing more than what is equivalent to high school work, although on somewhat different lines, and give an actual training in all the operations of wheat raising, orcharding, cattle raising, dairying, etc. That seems not only a legitimate, but desirable sort of school for this State, in which fruit raising, as well as the production of cereals, is so important. It would not tread on the ground of the College of Agriculture. It would prepare students, some of whom would enter that college, while others would practice on their own farms that which they had been taught the beginning of, in a scientific way, in the school.

Manual training schools do not pretend to teach trades. They claim that mind and body equally need development—that hand craft should keep pace with mind culture. Special attention is paid to freehand and industrial drawing. Then the pupils are set to work in wood, iron, and brass. The exercise of the hand and eye involve and compel a great amount of intellectual culture, and the boy leaves school feeling that skilled manual labor is honorable, and that he could soon learn any trade or use any newly invented labor-saving machine. Such a boy would not be crowded out by new machines.

Further, in this training the ideal object of education is being better reached. *All* the faculties are being cultivated. A better citizenship, a happier life is being provided for.

Second—I have already indicated the answer to this in answer to No. 1.

The whole question is only beginning to be understood. California can better afford to go "slow" and wait the results of thorough trials elsewhere, than to make expensive failures. One thing is clear: the use of the pencil ought to be required in the schools. This will necessitate a large number of thoroughly competent special teachers of drawing, for as a class teachers are not prepared to teach this subject. The demand for it is urgent. And the question should no longer be left in its present condition. Boys and girls ought to learn the first grades and be able to make a working drawing of simple objects. I mean a drawing such that a mechanic from it should be able to make the object without further guidance.

I have written very hurriedly, and am conscious that I have left many strong points untouched; others, however, will supply them. I simply wish to add my testimony in favor of *manual* training.

Very respectfully yours,

W. W. ANDERSON.

Professor Kleeberger, of San José, believes that the time and effort devoted to industrial training in our public schools should exceed the time and effort devoted to purely scholastic or intellectual training:

SAN JOSÉ, CAL., February 17, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

DEAR SIR: Yours of January twelfth, containing inquiries in regard to industrial education, is at hand, and I reply to your questions seriatim:

First—I *do* favor industrial training as a part of the public school system of the State of California.

Second—I think that the time and effort devoted to industrial training in our public schools should exceed the time and effort devoted to *purely scholastic or intellectual training;* for I believe that the prosperity and permanency of our Government depend not so much upon intellectual scholarship, as upon *sense, ability, and muscle skill.* The dangers that threaten our institutions come largely from the wage earners, and those who *should be* wage earners, and I believe that increased sense and muscle-education raises the general average of ability and desire to earn and enjoy a comfortable livelihood, and decreases the tendency to bad habits, vagrancy, crime, and disaffection towards society, capital, and government.

I think that in its scope industrial training should be broad. It should include: (1), the hand and eye training of the kindergarten occupations and free hand drawing; (2), the pure sense or observation training by the objective study of plants, animals, rocks, and minerals; (3), the invention training of mechanical and architectural drawing, designing, and geometry; (4), the training in investigation furnished by experimental work in physics, chemistry, and other natural sciences; and (5), training in the actual use of tools, and the actual performance of work in the more common industrial occupations of wage earners, wood and metal working, building, drafting, painting, orchardry, telegraphy, type setting, sewing, cooking, and others.

My own experience in teaching large classes (thirty to fifty), of mostly young ladies, in experimental chemistry, in a laboratory where the students make, as well as use, the necessary apparatus, convinces me that all the kinds of work enumerated above can be taught to classes just as successfully, and with even better permanent results than either grammar, geography, or history.

Divisions one, two, and three could be readily combined with the essential scholastic work of our primary and grammar schools. In fact, some of our best teachers are even now doing good work in the direction indicated, and more are joining with them every day.

It is only a question of a few years, as soon as there are enough trained teachers—graduates of Normal Schools—to teach all our public schools, until these parts of the plan shall be realized.

Divisions three and four should be accomplished in what might be called industrial high schools having a two years' course, in which the forenoon work might be scholastic, and the afternoon work manual. The high schools, maintained at public expense, at present educate only that portion of our youth who are in no sense a menace or a burden to the public, and serve to raise the general average of the professions, rather than of the people as a whole. But in an industrial high school, every student would learn to do *at least one industrial* occupation, thereby raising the general average of wage earners. Moreover, attendance at these industrial high schools should be compulsory upon all who have passed the grammar school, and who are not actually earning wages, or engaged in labor at home. Such an industrial high school should exist in every city, town, and village; and might be a union school for two or more country districts, of far more value in every respect than are the Caminetti schools of the present.

Of course, the great objection to all this is its expense, and the fact that it would be an innovation, but the present cry for an innovation in the way of more practical results from our public schools will eventually demonstrate that more expense and better results will be the truest economy.

Very truly yours,

E. R. KLEEBERGER.

Mr. O. Herbst, of San Francisco, fails to see the practicability of making manual training a part of the public school system:

JOHN J. TOBIN, *Esq., Labor Commissioner:*

DEAR SIR: I fully recognize the importance of manual and industrial training for young people, but I fail to see the practicability of making such training part of the course of instruction in our public school system.

Most of our schools, especially in this city, are too largely attended to allow the establishment of carpenter and other shops on the school premises, with any practical benefit to the boys, so that the extent of industrial training, in my opinion, would have to be industrial drawing. I should favor the establishment of special schools for manual and technical instruction, but I would not admit pupils under fourteen years to such schools.

Respectfully,

O. HERBST,

Principal South Cosmopolitan Grammar School, San Francisco.

If parents are not able to give industrial training to their children the State should do it:

VALLEJO, January 14, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

DEAR SIR: In regard to industrial training in our public schools, my opinions are these: Every child ought to have as good an education as he is capable of receiving. If the parents are not able to give such an education to their children, the State ought to have it done at public expense.

The arrangements of the public schools should be such that they would fit the conditions and ability of each child. These arrangements should consist of the best instruction in all subjects fitted for the different pupils, according to their age and ability, and also according to their special needs and desires. They should also consist of such manual training, arranged according to the age and ability of the pupils, as will develop their mechanical and inventive powers, and also their appreciation of the beautiful, the orderly, and the useful.

With such arrangements for our schools, each child would find some course fitted to his ability and his liking, and he would remain in school until his needs in regard to education were fully supplied. Pupils would be kept in the schools longer than they are now, and fewer would become dissatisfied and leave school to become hoodlums and disreputable characters, now so common in our towns and cities.

The training of children in our public schools should consist of all that is needed to educate properly their mental, moral, and physical powers. This will be done some time in the future; because our people will learn that the cost of such an education for every child will be an investment the best, most permanent, and far-reaching that can be made.

There are but two things to prevent such an education now, and they are lack of means and lack of skilled teachers. As a people, we think now that $2,000 is enough to invest in the education and bringing up of a child. Probably that sum is larger than the average amount used in bringing our children to the age of maturity. When we are willing to expend $10,000, or more, per child (the money being used in a judicious manner) we shall see a change for the better in regard to our children, far greater than we have seen in the past fifty years in regard to race horses.

Men and women of marked ability as teachers are not now attracted, as a class, to this profession by the income to be obtained, but rather by the opportunities offered to do good to their fellow beings. Many such teachers feel obliged to leave this work to take up some other that is more lucrative. Thus our children are made to suffer on account of the general desire to heap up more riches rather than pay such skilled workers liberally.

But, in my opinion, if we as a State would provide all that is necessary to give to every child a good education, such as would properly train his physical, mental, and moral being, the time would soon come when we would need no more taxes than we collect now. The better education, teaching that labor is honorable, and that each one should have some honorable occupation; that a morally upright mind, in a comparatively healthy body, is a treasure above price and obtainable by all. Such an education would soon bring to a minimum all the present enormous cost of providing for transgressors against law and order. How much better it would be to save by proper training through childhood and youth, than to repress in after years by the bars and walls of the common jail.

Not having had any experience in teaching in a school where manual instruction is used, I cannot state any definite plan for carrying on such instruction. That is something which can be determined in no other way than by careful trial. What should be done in this way and how, would depend greatly on the community in which the school is placed. All schools should have some common subjects of instruction, and then, besides these, they should have such ones as are best fitted to prepare pupils for the business life of their part of the State, or for such occupations as they might show themselves peculiarly fitted to enter upon. I do not mean by this that trades, etc., should be taught in the public schools; but that the training should be in accordance with some definite purpose or end, just as soon as the child shows any decided ability or inclination towards any particular business or occupation.

In order to have any number of teachers prepared to give instruction properly in manual training, there should be a college attached to the State University, in which young men and young women could take a course of instruction that would fit them to become teachers of such courses as may be found necessary for the public school. The course of instruction in this college should be such as would prepare students in four years to teach all the higher branches, as in high schools or high grammar schools, and also to become superintendents of a full course of instruction, from primary to high school, including some system of manual instruction. When it was found that one college could not supply the demand for such instruction of teachers, similar courses could be given in connection with the State Normal Schools. So, in course of time, by careful trial and gradual advance in the methods of preparing teachers, a sufficient number of skilled teachers could be trained, without costly failures on the part of the State, to carry on our schools in ways far better than are now in use. For such improvements all right thinking persons will ever pray.

Respectfully yours,

C. B. TOWLE.

Does not think manual training necessary in country schools:

SAN RAFAEL, January 13, 1888.

JOHN J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: *First*—I favor industrial training in the public schools of the cities and large towns. I do not think it necessary in the country schools.

Second—It is difficult to tell what the scope or extent of this training should be. This can only be determined by experiment. I think every boy, at least, should be so trained in the public schools that when he leaves school, at sixteen or seventeen years of age, he should be able, without further apprenticeship, to enter some one of the industrial pursuits and make a living. The best way to drive out the Chinese is to teach our boys to work. They can best be taught this by teaching them how to work.

Very truly yours,

C. S. SMYTH,
Principal of San Rafael School.

Books are mighty levers, but bread is necessary:

SAN FRANCISCO, May 30, 1888.

JOHN J. TOBIN:

SIR: I am not qualified to give that "full, free treatment" of the subjects involved, which Circular No. 4 invites and importance demands.

Still, I say this much, that I am in favor of industrial training as a part of the public school system of the State.

I favor it because I saw its helpful influence upon the youth of St. Louis and Boston, and particularly upon the orphans of Girard College. That education is the best which fits a man to enjoy life and aids him to support himself and family.

Girard College, Philadelphia, is a model school, where many trades are well taught and character developed without scholarship being neglected.

Books are mighty levers, but bread is necessary. The pedant who rails at the almighty dollar and sneers at the accused greed for lucre is not half right.

The pupil of our public school who has never earned a dollar, nor learned its true value, has neglected an essential part of a sound business education.

S. A. WHITE,
V. G. School.

Better work would be done in the schools with a system of industrial training introduced:

NEVADA CITY, February 25, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: Yours of the sixteenth ultimo is just at hand. In answer to question one, "Do you favor industrial training as a part of the public school system of this State?" I will say yes.

First—I believe that better work, or at least as good work, would be done in the schools with a system of industrial training introduced as is done now without it. It is well known that a certain amount of muscular labor is necessary to a healthy growth of the mind.

Second—It would teach the boys and girls to work, which would be a strong help toward breaking down that growing sentiment in our country, that labor is not altogether respectable.

Third—That sort of training will assist the boys, while young, to know what they are best adapted to pursue in life. A large part, as well as the best part, of the life of a very large number of boys and young men is wasted in finding out what they can do successfully.

Question two: "What, in your opinion, should be the scope or extent of this training?" To teach the rudiments or elements of trades, mechanics, draughting, drawing, engraving, etc., should be the scope of the work. It seems to me, that the practical application of this scheme can only be wrought out in the larger schools of the cities and large towns.

A. J. TIFFANY,
County Superintendent.

There is little enough time for studies already in our school course:

CRESCENT CITY, April 3, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

DEAR SIR: I am not in favor of "industrial training as a part of the public school system," if it is to take from the time or importance of mental work.

In the growing desire to be intensely practical, we are fast losing sight of the efficacy of study as a source of mental power. But I also realize that, owing to the selfishness and short-sightedness of parents, there is need of a manual training school, but I would have

it separate from the general school. We seem to have little enough time for studies already in our school course.

In this county there is opportunity for the boys to learn whatever trade is called for in this section. But in densely populated sections, where trades are so managed as to exclude *our own boys*, apparently to make room for foreign *men*, it would seem that some arrangement should be made whereby our youths could fit themselves to earn a living. To accomplish this end would require more time than can be afforded in connection with the ordinary schools, and as children generally become more interested in what they can see actually growing under their hands than in abstruse study, I fear the ordinary mental discipline of connected study would be sadly weakened. As to the extent or scope, I hardly know what my opinion is, only that in general I prefer to have a limited extent well known than a larger field superficially gone over.

I remain,

SARAH G. WRIGHT,
Superintendent of Schools of Del Norte County.

Favors special schools for industrial training which should be auxiliaries to our other public schools:

SAN FRANCISCO, ——, ——.

In reply to your circular received a few days since, I would say, I do favor industrial training as a part of the public school system. I do *not* advocate this as *supplanting* anything now taught, but rather as *supplementing* our work. Many who favor industrial training *underestimate* the value of mental training, which, *in my opinion*, is a great mistake. Nothing is truer than that "brains will tell" in any avocation; therefore, the mental training is an important factor in making superior artisans. Hence, I would have special schools open to *both boys and girls*, for industrial training, with teachers thoroughly skilled in the crafts taught. In these schools, instruction should be given in modeling in clay, wood carving, freehand drawing, joining, sewing, etc.

I would also have manual training schools, open, upon examination, to pupils who have finished the grammar school. Here, the boys and girls should have, in addition to a thorough course in drawing, language, mathematics, and science, instruction in the *nature* and use of tools, and in their application to the chief materials used in the world's industries. There should be a prescribed course in these, as in other schools.

Industrial training should be so incorporated as not to interfere with work already established, and should be so managed as to be an incentive to better and more thorough mental work. Such schools should be *auxiliaries* to our other public schools. They should *not* take their place. We need *both*; and, while the hand should be trained and a way thus prepared to forestall and prevent the "mischief," which the "spirit of evil finds for idle hands," the mental growth should not be stunted; the mind of the child should be developed, his knowledge broadened, his ideas enlarged, for in this way only will he become a deft and skilled handicraftsman.

By the complete education of the mental, moral, and physical powers, we may be able to send out from our schools men and women who shall do the world's work in the noblest and best manner possible. With *such* educational facilities, and *such an education as these would afford*, hoodlumism would become a thing of the past, and the work of our Police Courts and prison officials materially lessened.

Very respectfully,

E. A. CLEVELAND,
Principal Rincon Grammar School.

OPPOSED TO MANUAL TRAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The business workshops of the towns and cities are the best places for boys to learn to be successful artisans:

SAN FRANCISCO, January 19, 1888.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: In reply to your Circular No. 4, I have to say that I am not in favor of industrial training as a part of the public school system of this State, for the following reasons:

The public, when offered industrial instruction, have not taken advantage of the free education which has been tendered to them by the Government, or by the munificent donations of private individuals.

We have a Department of Agriculture in connection with the State University, where free instruction is given to the youth of our State in the practical working of our soils, yet I am informed that less than one half dozen pupils out of the million of people in our State are regular students in this department.

The same want of interest and desire to receive instruction in industrial training in the Mining Department of the University is shown, by the small number in attendance.

When Superintendent of Public Schools of this city, I gave considerable attention to industrial training in connection with our School Department. After earnestly investi-

gating the subject, I was forced, against my first impressions upon this subject, to come to the conclusion that the public school room is not the place to drill the young tyro in practical mechanics.

I think that wherever this system of instruction has been tried it has not met with that success which its most enthusiastic advocates could wish.

In my opinion the business workshops of the towns and large cities are the best places to teach our boys to learn to be successful artisans.

I am in favor of technical instruction in our public and private schools, to the greatest possible extent. Such technical schools as the Cooper Institute of New York have done much to advance the best interests of the young student who is struggling to master all that he can from the books, and from the instruction of his teacher, to become a successful artisan.

I have great hopes for the success of the technical school which is to be founded in this city by the munificence of Doctor Cogswell, but I fear that the workshops which he proposes to establish for the practical drill of pupils in the mechanic arts will not meet with that success which its founder so earnestly desires.

Respectfully,

JAMES DENMAN.

The opinion of Professor Denman is entitled to great weight, although he stands almost alone, among those responding to my circular, in opposition to manual training in connection with our public school system. He was formerly Superintendent of Schools in San Francisco, and is held in high esteem among the educators of the State. He favors such training, however, in schools like the Cogswell Polytechnic College.

Professor T. O. Crawford, Principal of the Crawford Manual Training College of Oakland, gives his views, based upon experience, of the working of the system of manual training in connection with our public school system:

OAKLAND, August 22, 1888.

Colonel J. J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: I am glad to answer your questions and give you my views on industrial education and manual training among the boys and girls of a grammar school age, from eleven to fifteen. I do this the more gladly, in that my judgment is based upon experience in the shop and in the class room for more than two years, with, during that time, more than one hundred and twenty boys of the above ages.

Believing that a better mental development (better, in that it was many-sided and symmetrical) could be attained by using as factors the eye and the hand along with the brain, I commenced agitating the establishment of a manual training department in connection with the grammar school department of the Lincoln Grammar School in Oakland.

On the Board of Education at that time were men who were heartily in favor of the proposed plan. The Superintendent at that time, J. C. Gilson, gave the weight of his influence in our favor, and ably seconded the efforts of Hon. W. H. Jordan, A. W. Bussell, E. B. Clement, and the others who were favorable to our undertaking. Our plan was so far matured that in April, of 1884, we procured twenty sets of carpenter's tools, utilized a shed for a shop, and commenced work. Our classes were arranged as follows: Four classes of twenty boys were formed and placed under the care of the principal (myself) and of the department mechanic, Mr. Bell. The first class worked from 8 A. M. till 10 A. M., on Mondays and Wednesdays, the second class from 8 A. M. to 10 A. M., on Tuesdays and Thursdays, the third class from 2 P. M. till 4 P. M., on Mondays and Wednesdays, and the fourth class from 2 P. M. to 4 P. M., on Tuesdays and Thursdays.

It will be seen that by this plan each boy gave of his own time two hours per week and took from the school time a like amount. This plan was adopted in deference to some, who were afraid that the whole four hours a week taken from the twenty-five hours, the whole amount of school time per week, would be too large a proportion for manual training. During the latter part of my two years and three months' experience with these classes, the whole four hours was taken from the ordinary school time. By this plan it will be seen that eighty boys from the first (the highest), second, third, and fourth (the lowest grammar grade) were in the manual training department. It will be in order now to give the results of the experiment, considered from many standpoints.

1. The standing of the boys in their class room work. It was, on the average, as good as the average work of the remaining pupils. Some of the boys worked better before entering the training class. It was easier for the teacher to control the boys and to have them perform their class room work, since, if a boy neglected his ordinary class room work, he was not allowed to remain in the shop.

2. Standing in general knowledge much higher than their classmates, as every lesson at the bench was preceded by a lesson pertaining to the material or thing used.

3. Habit of observation instituted in some cases for the first time—in all cases strengthened and made more accurate. The real use of the eye as the gateway to the soul was, in my case, first understood.

4. Power of seeing accurately developed amazingly. Lines and angles produced, recognized, and correctly named. Form developed, and the power to read and imagine the thing from its lines.
5. Cultivation of the power to carry the hand along a given line, thus insuring accurate work.
6. Increased power to concentrate the attention, and a consequent increase of work done in a given time.
7. Cultivation of power of comparison of forms and intelligent power to select the best.
8. Cultivation of habits of neatness and order, as all benches must be kept clean, and tools in proper places.
9. Inculcation of habits of economy. The best way of cutting material, so as to save material, taught and enforced.
10. Habit of doing a thing just right, without guess or slop work.
11. Habit of being busy at all times.
12. The dignity of labor, not as work, but as a factor in production, insisted on.

One of the lessons learned was that honest hand labor is as commendable as mental work. The boy thought most of in the shop was the best workman.

I can state from careful observation, that there were no bad effects growing out of our workshop; on the contrary, everything was made better by the introduction of manual training.

T. O. CRAWFORD,
Principal of the Crawford Manual Training College, Oakland, Cal.

OPINIONS OF MECHANICS.

It was found difficult to get an expression of opinion from mechanics, as the subject was new to them and they had not given it sufficient thought to hazard an opinion. Mr. Bushnell, late President of the Council of Federated Trades in San Francisco, whilst favoring manual training in our public schools, expresses a fear that political considerations would interfere with its success. Mr. Jorgensen, of the Furniture Workers Union, thinks the State should establish workshops:

SAN FRANCISCO, February 28, 1888.

J. J. TOBIN, *Esq., Commissioner State Bureau of Labor Statistics:*

DEAR SIR: In referring to your circular of twenty-sixth ultimo, permit me to say that I shall answer most heartily in the affimative to question one.

As to the scope or extent of this training, it would seem to me that, if *properly* and *honestly* fostered, the effort could hardly go too far. But so much depends upon the auspices under which this training should be conducted, and the system of school management being so changeable and so much controlled by political considerations, it would also seem to me best that great caution be exercised in putting such a course into practical operation.

Very truly yours,

W. A. BUSHNELL,
President Representative Council Federated Trades and Labor Organizations of the Pacific Coast.

SAN FRANCISCO, ——, ——.

Hon. JOHN J. TOBIN:

DEAR SIR: In answer to your circular permit me to make the following statement: I am heartily in favor of industrial training as part of the public school system, and I think the State ought to establish workshops in connection with free schools for children over fourteen years of age. The children should under no circumstances be allowed to work more than eight hours per day; all goods produced by these shops should be sold in retail to the public at the regular market price; and all income from this institution be paid to the young wage earners. They should have a right to work in such shops until their twentieth year of age.

Yours respectfully,

P. JORGENSEN,
Member of the Furniture Workers Union.

In an interview with a reporter of the San Francisco "Daily Report," Mr. Hamilton H. Dobbin, Secretary of the Federated Trades, speaking of the value of technical training schools for boys, said:

I can't speak from a builder's standpoint, for no class of builders are represented in the Federated Trades. None of the carpenters, plumbers, painters, or bricklayers are mem-

bers of that central organization. However, it was only a few days ago that some of those practical mechanics and I were discussing this very subject. They were of the opinion that such a school would furnish more thorough plumbers, carpenters, frescoers, etc. They told me that it was hard to get enough workmen skilled in the several branches of a trade. There were plenty of bright men in some lines, but their training had not been general and evenly. Trained men were in demand. Notwithstanding this demand there were always plenty of botches to be found, and they brought down wages of course. I think, said Mr. Dobbin, that for builders, such a trade school would be practicable and highly advantageous. But for many other trades it would be useless. For instance, in the shoemaking business. Look around me and what do you see? Every man doing one special piece of work. One man is making tops, another sewing, another soling, another heeling, and I am tacking. There was a time, before all this machinery was introduced, that my partner and I used to make shoes complete, but now every man makes a little. In this way one does not have to know how to make a whole shoe. In three months' time he can learn how to do his line of work as fast as his predecessor, and then the faster he works the more money he makes. A technical knowledge of the shoemaking business in general wouldn't do him any more good than geography would for making shoes. It might be a satisfaction to him as a study, but it would not enable him to make a cent more or be a bit more useful to his employer.

Mr. Henry T. Bush, of the firm of Bush & Mallet, plumbers, speaking of the Auchmuty Trade School, of New York, said:

The school, as run in New York, is certainly successful and one ought to be established here. Our great drawback is that we cannot get thorough plumbers. The boys come to a shop and wish to learn the trade of plumbing and gasfitting. Even if they staid two or three years they would not get as thorough training as they would under the trade school plan in a few months, but oftentimes they don't stay long enough in one place to learn anything thoroughly. They get so tired of the sameness—of not learning something new every day—that they accept with avidity an offer from any other shop for 25 cents a day more. Thus they flit from shop to shop, and at the end of the time which it takes a careful and steady young man to make a good plumber they are really tinkers only. The boss plumbers have individually thought much of the school plan, but our organization has been so busy fighting for the plumbing ordinance that we have as yet had no time to take concentrated action. We would gladly support any scheme of the kind, and the journeymen plumbers, I feel certain, will throw no obstacles in the way of any plan to make better workmen and keep up wages by weeding out poor ones.

From painters and bricklayers the reporter got similar answers with reference to the present superficial knowledge of a large number of the so called journeymen, and it was the unanimous opinion that a trade school, which should teach such branches, to be followed up by necessary practical experience, would not only be a blessing to the tradesmen, but to their patrons also.

Mr. A. Jackson, President of the Builders Association of San Francisco, said that "if New York and Philadelphia can make a success out of technical or trade schools for boys, there is no reason why San Francisco, with its accustomed enterprise, should not do likewise," and he proposed to bring the subject up at the next meeting of the association.

OPINIONS OF MECHANICS IN ANOTHER CHAPTER.

In the chapter on trades unions and labor organizations, under the heading of "Remarks from Workingmen," the opinions of many workingmen on this subject will be found.

BOYS AND GIRLS AID SOCIETY OF CALIFORNIA.

SAN FRANCISCO, January 28, 1888.

Mr. JOHN J. TOBIN, *Labor Commissioner:*

DEAR SIR: In reply to your circular, received some ten days ago—and this is my first opportunity to attend to the matter—I send you herewith inclosed a copy of my address on "Formation Rather than Reformation," at the recent Conference of Charities, which gives, in a general way, my views on the two questions contained in the printed circular. Beginning on page five, I think I have anticipated, in that address, both of your questions.

I do most emphatically favor industrial training as part of the public school system of this State, and think it should be recognized in the methods, more or less, from the beginning of our lowest grades up to the grammar or intermediate school, in which I think fully one half the time of the schools should be devoted to industrial training. I have dwelt upon this matter quite definitely in the short paper inclosed, and need not say more in my letter. I shall be happy to give you any assistance that I can in these investigations.

Very truly yours,

E. T. DOOLEY,
Superintendent.

The following able paper on "Technical Training for Teachers" was read before the Teachers State Convention at Berkeley by Mr. Joseph O'Connor, and is well worthy of careful study:

TECHNICAL TRAINING FOR TEACHERS.

By JOSEPH O'CONNOR, Principal Valencia Street Grammar School, San Francisco.

Jules Simon says, "Among all nations the direction impressed upon education depends on the idea which they form of the perfect man." It seems plain, therefore, that our schools must soon learn to train the hand as well as the head; that is, if our young business men are to compete successfully against the graduates of the European technical schools. This fact has already gained recognition in many private institutions of learning, but I believe the time is fast approaching when the country will deem it expedient to follow the example of France, England, Switzerland, Germany, Russia, etc., by establishing public technical schools or technical instruction in already established public schools.

These changes will certainly cause a remodeling of our educational system, which can only be accomplished with ease through the agency of specially trained teachers under the direction of competent supervision.

The present seems to be a period of transition and of unusual energy in educational development. But two or three hundred years ago the very few who could read were considered wonderfully accomplished. Gradually mathematics, languages (chiefly ancient), chemistry, geology, and physics have been added to the list of studies. It must not be forgotten, however, that this instruction has been and is almost entirely theoretical, and hence that school now called good, because they succeed well in what they attempt, will be considered poor indeed when they come to be tested by the practical application of their teachings to the arts, and industries, and business methods of the bread-winning world.

In the theoretical teaching which we seem to have inherited, our schools are good, and they are so in spite of the errors to which I have referred; but with these mistakes corrected, the instruction would be much improved. The necessary practical knowledge is now acquired, after the pupil has left the school, by dearly bought experience. This feature of education must, as far as possible, be brought into the schools. The pupil must be taught to apply the principles, heretofore conveyed at second hand through books, to the things of real life, instead of being permitted, as at present, to start his apprenticeship with principles behind him, and a hard practical world, in which every mistake implies a loss, ahead of him.

I believe I was the first teacher of California to call public attention, through one of my reports while Deputy Superintendent of Schools of San Francisco, to the necessity for a change in our educational system to meet the demand for what is known as technical instruction. I believe, also, I was the first to suggest the scheme of the Cogswell Polytechnical College—not to the founder, himself, but to those who presented it to him.

Any person who reads such works as Stetson's "Technical Education," or McArthur's "Education in relation to Manual Industry," will see what the Governments of Europe and the private individuals of the United States are doing for the simultaneous education of the hand and head. It is high time that the Government, the Universities, and the Normal Schools should start forward with one accord to fit our teachers to give our children such an education as will make them skilled artisans and practical scientists—able not only to compete with but to outstrip all the nations of Europe in trade, manufacture, and commercial enterprise.

I believe that Congress would do well to use a portion of the nation's surplus revenue for the establishment of one or more technical training schools for teachers. The great want of this country is trained teachers. The object of this training in art and industry, known as technical education, is to enable us to compete with nations. It seems clear, therefore, that with us, as with European countries, the project should be as much an affair of the nation as the army, or the navy, or commerce. It also seems clear that we should lose no further time about following the example of England, France, Germany, and Switzerland, by establishing technical training schools, where teachers may be trained to give our youth the instruction, which, in time, will enable them to bring within our borders the numerous foreign industries, to the support of which we now contribute so largely, and which, through the development and utilization of our unequaled natural wealth, will enable us, not merely to compete with, but to outstrip the nations of the earth in the development of wealth, happiness, and the highest civilization, while, by making the means to these ends the heritage of all, we throw a bulwark around our liberties, which neither plutocracy nor corruption can ever break down.

OPINIONS OF DISTINGUISHED MEN AND MEN OF BUSINESS ON MANUAL AND TECHNICAL TRAINING.

The following extracts from testimony given before investigating committees, and from papers read before public meetings, furnish evidence of the current of opinion on manual and technical education everywhere. They deserve to be carefully studied, for they emanate, mostly, from men of world-wide reputation:

United States Investigating Committee. William Steinway, the great piano manufacturer, New York, testified:

Our firm employs over one thousand men. A great evil under which this country is suffering—and it seems to me it is an evil increasing from year to year—is, that in no country of the world, as I have found during my experience and my extensive travels, are there so many young men growing up without learning a trade or any particular calling, as in the United States.

We have no apprentice law. In our own business, as well as the wood working business, everybody is unwilling to take an apprentice, for the simple reason that it is a well known fact that the first year or two, when a boy is learning a trade, he will produce nothing, and will spoil a great deal, and will take up the time of a skilled man to teach him, and yet the moment he has learned one little branch of the trade he leaves and shifts for himself. He has not learned the business properly, and the consequence is that he is dependent, and in times of great depression cannot find employment.

Hence we have no supply of skilled artisans growing up, and have to draw for our extra skilled workmen on Europe. Through the wants of an apprentice law, seven eighths of the workingmen in the piano shops in New York, and over one half in the New England States, are German.

The total want of industrial schools is another very great evil. There ought to be industrial schools all over each city, where boys can go and find for what business they have aptitude and talent. Then, under regular apprentice laws, under which a boy could be bound for, say, five years, at rising wages, commencing, say, at $3 a week for the first year, $3 50 for the second year, $4 for the third, and so on, they would learn a trade well. During the last two or three years the employer would have the advantage of his labor, which during the first one or two years he lost.

Do away with the curse of American mechanics—young men learning only a portion of a skilled trade, and being absolutely dependent upon that, because they do not know anything else.

Question—Do you think the training of our people in industrial schools likely to produce an overstock of skilled labor in this country, and thereby reduce the wages of labor? Answer—I think it will not. The country is taking such strides in population and wealth that the addition of the skilled laborer, who would become such by the establishment of apprentice laws and industrial schools, would simply go on, without any perceptible effect. But the principal thing is that our American boys, as they grow up, ought to be taught to learn a profession or trade, and be independent.

That is what I find nowhere in the wide world so much neglected as here; nowhere are there so many young men who have not learned anything in particular, as there are in this country, and yet they are the most intelligent in the world.

John W. Britton, firm of Brewster & Co., carriage manufacturers, New York, testified:

We employ over five hundred hands, four hundred of whom may be called skilled mechanics. Look at the mechanic and laboring man to-day, and under the condition of our social affairs what sort of a wife can he get? Girls have no opportunity whatever to have any domestic training. If she had been to a public school she is taught nothing that is really useful. Let us have less piano and more practical education of women and girls. Let a girl be taught, at the public expense, if you please, how to darn a stocking and how to sew on buttons. Let them learn to cook, and to do these things well. In London they are taking up that subject seriously, and are attaching to their public schools cooking and sewing schools, so that girls may have some knowledge of the duties of wives and mothers. If girls have no early training themselves, they do not know how to train their children.

Let me right here say a word about the difficulty we have in getting apprentices. The American is getting to look upon mechanical labor as somewhat detrimental to his liberty. If a boy has any ability he looks upon a trade as so much lost time. He wants to be a merchant, a broker, a banker, or a professional man. They want rapid transit to a fortune and will not wait. Every distinguished foreigner who comes to this country is paraded around among our public schools, and we talk to these foreigners about the beauties of our public schools, and we give "taffy" to our school principals, and everything looks glorious, but the fact is that it is disgusting to a man who knows anything about it.

I was chairman of a committee of the Carriage Builders National Association, who prepared and issued the following address:

"*To officials and official bodies in the United States having the supervision of public education:*

"The Carriage Builders National Association of the United States, in behalf of the industry represented by them and other mechanical industries of the country, beg leave to call your attention to the necessity of some change in the course of study in our public schools, which will prepare those who intend to become apprentices in trades and mechanical pursuits requiring a high standard of taste and skill. Very few of the pupils who attended the public schools of this and other cities have had any instruction in free-hand drawing and practical geometry, so necessary to all who wish to engage in the higher mechanical pursuits. At present we are dependent in a great measure upon artisans educated in their trades abroad, but the number of this class seeking our shores for employment is lessening every year. The lack, too, of any well established apprenticeship system in this country precludes any relief in the near future from that source. We, therefore, deem it highly important to reinforce the ranks of mechanics by a system of public school education which shall earlier fit boys to enter into trades, with some assurance that their preparatory studies are likely to assist in making them intelligent and skilled workmen.

"William D. Rogers, Pennsylvania; Chauncey Thomas, Massachusetts; Lowe Emerson, Ohio; W. N. Fitzgerald, New Jersey; Wilder H. Pray, New York; Geo. W. W. Houghton, New York; John W. Britton, Chairman."

In the kindergarten school, as soon as little children are able to toddle, a slate and pencil are put into their hands and they are taught the rudiments of drawing. I would make every boy and girl who received a public education learn to draw. In this country, the mechanic should be the superior in working power over the mechanic abroad. But compare him with the Frenchman. The Frenchman is instinctively an artist. He may only be a laborer, but he has the intuitions of an artist. Why is it that Paris supplies the world with things of beauty? Because for fifty years past the French Government has seen to it that the people got that sort of an education which would make them more efficient and make them earn more for themselves and for the nation. London is now waking up and following Paris. In Germany, the Government believes that it is under a moral obligation to look after the interests of the workingman.

If a boy understands something of the principles of geometry and has done something at free-hand drawing, even in a rude way, when he comes into our workshop to learn a trade it is equivalent to two years' experience for him.

The kind of education that our boys want is not a classical education. I believe that the average boy who is sent to acquire a classical education is ruined by the time he gets through with it.

France, with her technical schools, has taken away the carriage trade from London.

Senate Investigating Committee. Charles F. Wingate, Sanitary Engineer, New York:

There should be some modification of our public school system of training, so that while there should not be a regular industrial course in the day school, yet the subject of drawing, for example, should be taught just as much as writing. The evening schools should be turned into industrial schools. Cooper Institute is so crowded with applicants that they have to turn away thousands every year.

In Hoe's printing establishment they have some two hundred boys, who are required to stay down two evenings in the week during the winter and receive regular instructions in reading, writing, drawing, and other technical knowledge. The firm pays for the boys' supper, but makes it compulsory for the boys to come.

Senate Investigating Committee. Richard J. Hinton, journalist, New York:

Nearly ever educator to-day, so far as I know, objects to the idea of the public schools being made a vehicle for teaching trades.

I think myself such an objection is an entirely valid one. Industrial education should be an education in the principles and applications in a general form which control the particular trade or occupation. After passing beyond the primary, secondary, and grammar school, where the pupils wanted to go to the high school, instead of studying what the old teachers called the "humanities," and what we call the "accomplishments," the high schools in all cities should be so divided that a boy who was going to sea should be taught navigation, and a boy going to learn a trade should be taught drawing and all the scientific knowledge which could be practically applied to his pursuit.

He need not and should not be taught to put plaster on walls, or take a stone out of winding, as the masons call it when they square one, or to lay bricks in courses, and so on. In France you will find industrial schools scattered all through the country, while in Paris that which is equivalent to our patent office is made the basis of instruction free for the artisans of that city who choose to avail themselves of it. In Belgium the entire country is overrun with special technical and trade schools, and so in Switzerland, and largely so in Germany.

Senate Investigating Committee, New York. Joseph Medell, publisher of the "Chicago Tribune:"

I next come to the educational system of this country as bearing on the labor question. I refer to the high school and college system of teaching. Our college system certainly does not train our youth in habits of useful industry; its purpose is not to increase the effectiveness of labor, to make two blades of grass grow where only one grew before; it does not show the pupil how, by acquiring a manual art, he can double or treble the value of his labor. It does not teach art or science in a practical form.

On the contrary, college education is conducted with a view to imparting a knowledge of dead languages and higher mathematics to the pupils, which is all well enough for the wealthy and leisure classes, but is not suited for bread winners. These academies attract hundreds of thousands of our youth, whose purpose is to acquire the art of living by their wits and avoiding manual labor; this, too, is the purpose of their parents in sending them to such schools. These academies have flooded the professions with men destitute of natural capacity for them, and have swollen the ranks of office seekers, gambling speculators, and professional sharps, who subsist by preying upon the rest of the community. This American system of education has destroyed all desire upon the part of youths to learn trades and become honest artisans, and it has crowded the ranks of the middlemen with searchers after genteel employment at wretched wages. Multitudes of farmers and mechanics sons seek to be salesmen, clerks, bookkeepers, drummers for trade houses, and failing to find or retain such situations, they become "sports," billiard markers, bartenders, confidence men, dead beats, anything in short but hand-soiling workingmen. With the exception of a few special branches of industry, Americans have surrendered the mechanical fields to foreigners, and when more artisans are needed they are not trained here, but are imported as we import our merchandise. This is all wrong. It is a cruel injustice to the rising generation of Americans and a source of weakness to the body politic. Every institution of learning should, in my judgment, teach art practically. Every college should have a department of mechanism and a chemical laboratory to impart the secrets of nature and the sources of force. We need industrial schools in every city, where the youth can learn trades that will equip them for the struggles of life and increase the power and productiveness of their labor, and elevate it in the eyes of the rising generation. They must be taught to respect, rather than despise industry, and to hold working bees in higher estimation than the drones in the human hive.

Of the present American mechanics the enormous majority of them are of foreign birth, and they prefer, when there is a vacancy, to send for a brother, cousin, or chum of their own in the old country if a mechanic; and so they secure places for them and limit the places which might be had by Americans, and in that way they keep the Americans out.

Another trouble is that the "bosses," as the proprietors are called, do not like to be bothered with apprentice boys, and do not want to give up the time of their foremen to teach these boys. They prefer importing ready-made mechanics from Europe. They prefer to have men that already know the trade than to be bothered with teaching boys for three or four years the art they are working at, so that between the disinclination of the proprietors to incur the trouble of instructing boys and the hostility of the trades unions to Americans getting into the trades, our boys are squeezed out. Then there is a vicious idea, taught in families among the American people, that it is not quite respectable to follow any vocation that soils the fingers or the shirt cuffs, and the mothers, as well as the fathers, like to have their sons go into what are called "genteel employments," even if they are beggarly paid. The dignity of labor is not held up at all, and mechanism is not held in the respect that it ought to be in this country. For my part, I look upon the mechanic as being about the best man to be found next to the farmer. I regard the farmer as the first.

PROFESSOR HUXLEY ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The following is from an article written for an English review by the celebrated scholar and thinker, Professor T. H. Huxley:

A vast system of elementary education has now been in operation among us for sixteen years, and has reached all but a very small fraction of the population. I do not think that there is any room for doubt that, on the whole, it has worked well, and that its indirect, no less than its direct, benefits have been immense.

But, as might be expected, it exhibits the defects of all our educational systems, fashioned as they were to meet the wants of a bygone condition of society. There is a widespread, and I think well justified, complaint that it has too much to do with books and too little to do with things. I am as little disposed as any one can well be to narrow early education and to make the primary school a mere annex of the shop. And it is not so much in the interests of industry as in that of breadth of culture that I echo the common complaint against the bookish and theoretical character of our primary instruction.

If there were no such thing as industrial pursuits, a system of education which does nothing for the faculties of observation, which trains neither the eye nor the hand, and which is compatible with utter ignorance of the commonest natural truths, might still be reasonably regarded as strangely imperfect. And when we consider that the instruction and training which are lacking are exactly those which are of most importance for the

great mass of our population, the fault becomes almost a crime, the more that there is no practical difficulty in making good these defects.

There really is no reason why drawing should not be universally taught, and it is an admirable training for both eye and hand. Artists are born, not made; but everybody may be taught to draw elevations, plans, and sections; and pots and pans are as good, indeed better, models for this purpose than the Apollo Belvedere. The plant is not expensive; and there is this excellent quality about drawing of the kind indicated, that it can be tested almost as easily and severely as arithmetic. Such drawings are either right or wrong, and if they are wrong the pupil can be made to see that they are wrong. From the industrial point of view, drawing has the further merit that there is hardly any trade in which the power of drawing is not of daily and hourly utility.

In the next place, no good reason, except the want of capable teachers, can be assigned why elementary notions of science should not be an element in general instruction. In this case, again, no experience or elaborate apparatus is necessary. The commonest thing—a candle, a boy's squirt, a piece of chalk—in the hands of a teacher who knows his business, may be made the starting points whence children may be led into the regions of science as far as their capacity permits, with efficient exercise of their observational and reasoning faculties on the road. If object lessons often prove trivial failures, it is not the fault of object lessons, but that of the teacher, who has not found out how much the power of teaching a little depends on knowing a great deal, and that thoroughly; and that he has not made that discovery is not the fault of the teachers, but of the detestable system of training them, which is widely prevalent.

As I have said, I do not regard the proposal to add these to the present subjects of universal instruction, as made merely in the interests of industry. Elementary science and drawing are just as needful at Eton (where I am happy to say both are now parts of the regular course) as in the lowest primary school. But their importance in the education of the artisan is enhanced, not merely by the fact that the knowledge and skill thus gained—little as they amount to—will be of practical utility to him; but further, because they constitute an introduction to that special training which is commonly called "technical education."

I conceive that our wants in this last direction may be grouped under four heads: (1) Instruction in the principles of those branches of science and of art which are peculiarly applicable to industrial pursuits, which may be called preliminary education. (2) Instruction in the special branches of such applied to science and art, as technical education proper. (3) Instruction of teachers in both these branches. (4) Capacity-catching machinery.

A great deal has already been done in each of these directions, but much remains to be done. If elementary education is amended in the way that has been suggested, I think that the school boards will have quite as much on their hands as they are capable of doing well.

Technical education, in the strict sense, has become a necessity for two reasons. The old apprenticeship system has broken down, partly by reason of the changed conditions of industrial life, and partly because trades have ceased to be "crafts," the traditional secrets whereof the master handed down to his apprentices. Invention is constantly changing the face of our industries, so that "use and want," "rule of thumb," and the like, are gradually losing their importance, while that knowledge of principles which alone can deal successfully with changed conditions is becoming more and more valuable. Socially, the "master" of four or five apprentices is disappearing in favor of the "employer" of forty, or four hundred, or four thousand "hands," and the odds and ends of technical knowledge—formerly picked up in a shop—are not, and cannot be, supplied in the factory. The instruction formerly given by the master must therefore be more than replaced by the systematic teaching of the technical school.

Institutions of this kind, on varying scales of magnitude and completeness, from the splendid edifice set up by the City and Guild's Institute, of London, to the smallest local technical school, to say nothing of classes which have been established in various parts of the country, and the movement in favor of their increase and multiplication are rapidly growing in breadth and intensity. But there is much difference of opinion as to the best way in which the technical instruction so generally desired should be given. Two courses appear to be practicable: The one is the establishment of special technical schools with a systematic and enlightened course of instruction demanding the employment of the whole time of the pupils. The other is the setting afoot of technical classes, especially evening classes, comprising a short series of lessons on some special topic, which may be attended by persons already earning wages in some branch of trade or commerce.

There is no doubt that technical schools, on the plan indicated under the first head, are extremely costly; and, so far as the teaching of artisans is concerned, it is very commonly objected to them that, as the learners do not work under trade conditions, they are apt to fall into amateurish habits, which prove of more hindrance than service in the actual business of life.

When such schools are attached to factories, under the direction of an employer who desires to train up a supply of intelligent workmen, of course this objection does not apply; nor can the usefulness of such schools for the training of future employers, and for the higher grade of the employed, be doubtful; but they are clearly out of the reach of the great mass of the people, who have to earn their bread as soon as possible. We must, therefore, look to the classes, and especially to the evening classes, as the great instrument for the technical education of the artisan. The utility of such classes has

now been placed beyond all doubt; the only question which remains is to find the ways and means of extending them.

Supposing our intermediate science teaching and our technical schools and classes are established; there is yet a third need to be supplied, and that is the want of good teachers. And it is necessary not only to get them, but to keep them when you have got them.

It is impossible to insist too strongly upon the fact that efficient teachers of science and of technology are not to be made by the processes in vogue at ordinary training schools. The memory loaded with mere book work is not the thing wanted—is, in fact, rather worse than useless—in the teacher of scientific subjects. It is absolutely essential that his mind should be full of knowledge, and not of learning, and that what he knows should have been learned in the laboratory, rather than in the library.

Last, but not least, comes the question of providing the machinery for enabling those who are by nature specially qualified to undertake the higher branches of industrial work to reach the position in which they may render that service to the community. If all our educational expenditure did nothing but pick one man of scientific or inventive genius, each year, from amidst the hewers of wood and drawers of water, and give him the chance of making the best of his inborn faculties, it would be a very good investment. If there is one such child among the hundreds of thousands of our annual increase, it would be worth any money to drag him either from the slough of misery or the hotbed of wealth, and teach him to devote himself to the service of his people.

The following is taken from a valuable and interesting paper read before the Teachers State Convention at Berkeley, by Professor Joseph Le Conte:

HAND TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

By Professor Joseph Le Conte, of the University of California.

This subject, under the title of "manual training," has been much discussed of late, but mostly, both by friends and foes, under a misconception of its true function. It is urged by the people and by many educators, because of its supposed practical utility, that it is an apprenticeship to trade.

For that very reason, on the other hand, it is opposed by many of the truest friends of education. It panders, they say, to a false view of school education. Our schools, they say, and say rightly, are for general and not special culture, are mental training schools, not trade schools, are for making intelligent citizens, not tradesmen or artisans.

If this be the object of introducing manual training into the schools, then I wholly sympathize with the opposers. Why should our schools prepare for one pursuit more than another? Why trades more than professions or shopkeeping? By all means let there be trade schools, special schools of many kinds, if it be deemed necessary; but let them not be connected with our public school system.

But this is not the true object of hand work or manual training in the schools. The mistake here is the same as in the case of drawing. As drawing, if introduced, should be, not for making artists, but for training the brain through eye and hands, so hand work, if introduced, should be, not for making carpenters or blacksmiths, but to train the brain by coöperation of hand and eye. It is impossible to doubt the prime importance of hand training from this point of view. All admit the absolute necessity of the use of the hand in the brain culture of the child. All *now* admit, also, that the best scientific culture in university education require the use of instruments of research—the microscope, telescope, the balance, the measures of force of many kinds. But in the whole wide space between life in the school and the college, this great agent of culture is wholly left out.

Now, I am quite sure that for every grade of culture, whether of the individual or of the race, there is a corresponding grade of handwork necessary for the best brain culture. In the child of pre-school age, and in the savage, it is the simple use of the hand, or assisted by rude implements.

In the school boy or girl, as also in the next higher grades of races, it is by the use of those finer implements which we call "tools." In the university, as in the most civilized races, it is by the use of scientific instruments and machines. The three grades of hand work, then, are the use of implements, tools, and instruments. The one specially adapted to the schools is the use of tools. But not only is hand training in the schools an immediate and very urgent want, but, by the increasing differentation of human pursuits, and the increasing divergence of school life from actual life, is becoming more so every year. It cannot be put off long. There must be a return to natural methods.

In this separation of school methods from nature, and their final return, I see an illustration of a universal law running through all things human. Man must make his own possessions of all kinds, not merely inherit them.

We have forfeited by our artificial book methods that perfect nature culture which comes of coöperation of sense and brain and hand. The recovery, commenced by Pestalozzi and Froebel, is now continued in the movement for sense and hand training, and will still continue until our education is again wholly on nature. Such sweeping changes as those I am urging I know cannot be made in a day. It may be that country boys and girls will get much practice in hand use on the farm, and in doing chores about the yard, the stable, and the kitchen. But for our city boys and girls, what training of hand and eye can they get if not in the schools?

I insist, then, on the prime importance of hand training as well as sense training, the cultivation of the executive as well as of the receptive power, of the faculty of doing as well as of observing. As to the best form of hand work I say nothing. I leave that to those better acquainted than I with practical details. It is generally conceded, however, that different forms of tool work in wood and iron serve the best purpose. But let me insist again, for fear I should be misunderstood, that the prime object of such hand training is not its utility in the ordinary sense. Such utility may be and is no doubt a great advantage, but this is wholly subsidiary to the main object, which is mind training through hand work. School work at present deals so much with words and ideas, and so little with things. It is in many ways so different from natural child life that often there grows up an unconquerable repugnance to the school room. In some there results a still worse evil, viz., a complete submission to mechanical drill, a working of the mind only in ruts, and finally a loss of independent, spontaneous activity, and natural mode of working of the mind. So great do I think the danger that I am wholly opposed to early schooling, unless it be in the kindergarten. If there be any chance of culture at home, however desultory, I would not send a child to the public schools, as now organized, before twelve years old. We thus give a chance for healthy growth and spontaneous activity which cannot be easily quenched.

After this the rigid discipline of the school will have a most wholesome effect. Such a boy will lag a little at first, will find it hard to learn to work in harness, but soon he will distance competitors, especially in the higher education and in life.

The author of the following paper, Mr. H. Weinstock, of the large dry goods firm of Weinstock & Co., of Sacramento, has taken a practical interest in the question of industrial training and put it to the test in his own establishment. Boy and girl apprentices there are instructed daily by competent teachers in several of the branches usually taught in school, so that whilst the hand and eye are trained in the store the mind is not left uncultivated. He can therefore speak with authority upon the question of combining manual with mental training:

A PLEA FOR SCHOOL WORKSHOPS.

By H. Weinstock, Esq., of Sacramento.

Not long ago the following news item appeared in a San Francisco daily paper:

"A Strange Crime.—A Man Committed Arson to learn a Trade in San Quentin.

"A young man named John O'Brien accosted Police Officer Williams yesterday afternoon and said he wished to give himself into custody for arson. He said he had burned up about seventy-five railroad ties at the Peralta yards, in West Oakland. Investigation revealed the truth of his assertion, and he was locked up for safe keeping. He could offer no explanation for his strange act, in giving himself up, stoutly declaring that the arson had been committed with malice and forethought, and observing that he had never learned a trade, and if he went to San Quentin that defect might be remedied."

Absurd as this conduct may seem on the part of the man O'Brien, it has its influence in suggesting a line of thought to the writer, which has led to this essay.

The United States stands foremost among the nations of the world as a country devoted to the interests of education. This nation spends annually $93,000,000 for education. It spends for education nearly three times as much as Great Britain, three times as much as Germany, and six times as much as France. It is the only country in the world that spends more for schools than for military and naval armaments. And yet the question is raised by many: "Is this money wisely expended?" Many able thinkers take the position that our public school system is harmful in its results; that the grading of pupils, as practiced in the public schools, is "most vicious." Such a system, they say, destroys individuality, the active mind is kept back and graded down to the mind of the average. They maintain that the system of grading may be compared with the barbarous custom said to have been practiced by a certain savage race, who buried its dead in coffins all of one size, stretching the bodies that were too short, and cutting down the limbs of those too long.

There are those, also, who hold that our public school system is harmful in its influences, because it educates vast numbers above their station and dissatisfies them with their lot, thus spoiling first class manual workers by making of them third class clerks and professionals.

As proof of these facts, they point out that comparatively few native born are engaged in the humbler pursuits or even in the trades, and that most of our domestic service and the greater part of our skilled and unskilled labor is performed by foreigners.

The purpose of this paper is not, however, to discuss the question as to whether we are over educated.

The writer sees around him too many proofs of the great good derived from our diffusive and liberal system of education to consider it an evil. He fully realizes that such of our native born as do engage in industrial and mechanical pursuits, by virtue of their liberal public school education, soon surpass the illiterate and poorly educated foreign mechanic or laborer.

Our public school system has been the chief factor in aiding the American artisan to become the most inventive and ingenious in the world. Much of our national wealth and power has come as a result of his brilliant inventions.

A writer in a recent magazine article truly says: "New inventions open new fields of labor. Take printing, take photography, take lithography, take gas making, take steam transportation, take all these fields of labor which have been positively created out of nothing by invention, and you will find that the man released from labor in some old occupation by the introduction of machinery which performs his work, enters some of these or other new avocations with increased pay for his labor."

I hold that the world is deeply indebted to the American inventor for his many wonderful and useful discoveries, and the American inventor is again deeply indebted to our public schools, their aid in developing his faculties. Thus our public school system has been the means not alone of adding to the comfort and convenience and profit of the people of this nation, but to all the civilized people on the globe.

We feel that we owe our public school system a debt of gratitude so great that we cannot, like the critics previously quoted, bring ourselves to condemn it, nor even to criticize, except it be in a most grateful spirit. The purpose of this paper, then, is not to tear down, but rather to recommend the broadening of the helpful influences of the schools of America.

To be too radical in advocating new measures is to throw aside the good which may be held fast in existing systems; to be too conservative is to fall behind in the van of progress.

We must, therefore, strive, while profiting by the new, to save all the good in the old. This thought applies most forcibly to education. Though our methods of instruction may yet be imperfect, our system of education, embracing, as it does, the primary, the grammar, the high school, and the university, is in its completeness in full keeping with the progressive spirit of the age.

A steady and regular school attendance should graduate a student from our State universities at the age of twenty-one. If his years have been wisely spent he should find himself well grounded in the studies that lie at the foundation of the higher callings, and though he may begin at the lower round of any of the professions, he should, by virtue of his years of mental training, be enabled to make speedy progress.

That he does not always do this must be admitted. This admission cannot, however, be looked upon as a reflection on the system. It indicates simply one of two facts. Either the student is unfitted for a profession by disposition, or by lack of talent; or if he is aware that he possesses only moderate abilities, the cause of his disappointment in failing to make headway in active life may lie in his not having realized beforehand that the lower rounds of the professional ladder have long been overcrowded, and that there is room in intellectual callings only for the more brilliant and the more talented.

The overcrowding of intellectual pursuits is sharply pointed out by the editor and proprietor of the oldest Boston society paper, who said to a well-trained writer: "Why should I pay your price? I run newspapers to make money, and there are any number of women on Beacon Street and Back Bay glad to send me work at $3 a column to pay for their gloves, and plenty of young lawyers on Court Street willing to do the same to get something to eat." Thus the commentor on this item goes on to say, that "if that is what Harvard, and the higher education, prepares for us all, I fear we will come to think as contemptuously of clerks and students as any baron of the middle ages."

It is quite true that the liberality of our public school and educational systems tempt many to become aspirants for places in the higher pursuits, where fame and fortune are seemingly within easy reach—many who, from lack of mental strength, are unfitted to earn their bread except by their hands; and thus, in the language of those who condemn our educational system: "First class clerks and professionals are added to the already long list."

But it is also true, as already pointed out, that this very educational system has been the most potent influence in making this the grandest, the wealthiest, and the most powerful of all nations. It is also true that it is in the interest of progress and civilization to aid and to support an educational system that will enable the humblest, the poorest citizen to give his children an education that in most other countries is at the command only of the affluent or the wealthy; an educational system that will enable the son of the day laboring immigrant to become the general of the American army; an educational system that has made it possible for the sons of the humblest citizens to fill our highest places; an educational system that within a century has given the world more men of great deeds than half the nations of the globe; an educational system that inspires ambition, that lifts man upward and onward, that makes cultivated men and women out of the sons and daughters of illiterate European peasants; an educational system that has aided untold numbers of the talented poor to attain distinction, and to benefit themselves and their country; an educational system that has been the means of making thinking animals out of millions who otherwise would have lived, as did their ancestors, in a state of mental vegetation.

Though our educational system may have its evils, its benefits are so far in the ascend-

ancy that we should not alone support it, but we should strive to still more broaden its usefulness.

Our system of education should not alone be made an aid to the cultivation of the mind, but it should be made the means of giving skill to the hand, and this brings me to the heart of my subject.

If it is within the province of the State to cultivate the mind, and if it is within the province of the State to aid those who seek employment in the professions, then why should it not lie within the province of the State to aid those who seek employment in the trades? Is it not fully as important that we should have the means at our command of training our sons to become intelligent and skillful carpenters, plumbers, and masons, as to educate them to become intelligent lawyers and ministers?

Do not the former in fact have far more influence on our health and comfort than do the latter?

Of what benefit is it to be surrounded by eminent members of highly respected professions, if in our very homes life and health are endangered by the admission of the most poisonous and deadly gases through the dense ignorance of so humble an individual as the plumber? Unimportant as the occupation of the plumber may seem, we little realize how enormous is the human misery and destruction caused through his ignorance. How many millions of victims have been claimed through the agencies of scarlet fever, and measles, and diphtheria, and the numerous other deadly diseases engendered by defective plumbing and imperfect sewerage?

How much is added to the discomfort of the American people by houses built with doors that will not close and windows that will not open?

How many lives have been lost and endangered by defective construction of buildings, the result of gross ignorance on the part of builders and contractors?

In saying all this let me not be understood as meaning that I consider it practicable for the State to send forth finished mechanics. This would be as impossible as for the State to graduate finished lawyers, or physicians, or engineers, or journalists, or finished members of other professions.

I fully believe that the State should not attempt to say what trade in after-life the boy shall follow, but the State should afford its pupils an education at least in elementary mechanics, such as will aid in educating the mind through the education of the hand. In other words, the workshop, such as I would advocate, being made a part of every public school, should be used to carry on the kindergarten system on a higher and more advanced plane. To teach industrial object lessons in a manner that will forever implant within the mind of the pupil principles and general laws that may be applied to all industrial pursuits, he is to be taught not alone the laws concerning the use of the plumb, the level, and the square, but also the properties of the cube, the circle, the ellipse, and the cylinder.

An intimate knowledge of these things is of benefit to every person, and almost invaluable to the workman.

And yet how deplorably large is the percentage of workmen who deal with these things mechanically, and without any intelligent conception of the laws by which they are governed. Is it not of the greatest importance that the workman shall handle his tools with wisdom and with intelligence, rather than that he shall work and move as a "machine among machines?" Aside from the "bread and butter" side of the question; aside from the gain in material wealth to the workman and to the State; aside from the gain to the nation in health, and comfort, and convenience, by having in its service an army of intelligent and scientifically skilled laborers, the influence that such an industrial education must have on the *characters* of the workers is yet of still greater value.

Knowledge is character and character is knowledge. True that we may have knowledge without character, but we can have little character without knowledge.

Knowledge develops a finer sense of right and aids to cultivate within us the desire to live more for others and less for ourselves.

Compare the skilled mechanic who has graduated from a training school with the workman of equal native talent, who has picked up what little knowledge he may have of his trade from masters or from fellow journeymen, who themselves are imperfectly instructed, and you will not fail to notice the great difference in their characters. The one is clear in his thoughts and exact in his habits and in his labors. The other has confused notions concerning his work, cannot give intelligent and clearly defined reasons why certain things are done in a certain way, except that he does as he was shown. His work is careless, slouchy, and imperfect. He knows only rules, and not principles. If he is a plumber, his pipes soon leak and burst, if he is a brick mason, his walls soon settle and crack; if he is a carpenter, his poorly finished joints come apart; and if he is a machinist, there is constant friction among the parts of his engine, causing it to soon wear itself out.

The difference in their industrial training explains the difference in the work of these two men, and the difference in the manner of performing their work results in developing two widely different characters.

It is held by some that to introduce industrial training in our public schools is to take away from the pupil the time that should be devoted to the cultivation of a higher knowledge.

What knowledge can be more important or more useful than that which tends to make man more self-reliant and more intelligent concerning the laws with which he comes in hourly contact? The time required in the pursuit of an industrial course need not necessarily interfere with other studies. On the contrary, school workshops afford a chance for change of occupation. The alternative between work and study is of great value

One gives zest for the other. Labor in the school workshop will largely take the place of play, and serve not alone as an educational factor, not alone as a factor to a higher moral and mental condition to which it is conducive, but it will also serve as a source of recreation.

In conclusion, permit me to give an abstract from a recent report of the workman's school, established some years ago in New York City under the successful directorship of Felix Adler. The great success attending the efforts of this experiment is in itself powerful proof of the entire practicability of school workshops. Every argument that has been raised against such a system is more than answered by the success of the workingman's school of New York.

The report, from which the following is clipped, goes on to say:

"Pupils of the lowest classes work in clay, using compasses, rulers, and blunt knives; they draw upon the clay, and afterwards cut out the simple plane figures, acquiring in this way the elementary ideas of geometrical forms. Pupils next above these grades use pasteboard as material, and sharp knives, awls, etc., as tools. The work consists of a series of exercises in stereography, the various geometrical solids being drawn in flat projection, and afterwards folded up and glued into shape. Passing above this grade, pupils next work in flat wood, using the necessary tools, including the bracket saw. Mensuration of areas is taught by this means. Next above this comes a series of exercises of geometrical solids, which are constructed from blocks of wood; those having plane faces being made in the mitre box, and those having curved faces on the lathe.

"Calculation of volumes is taught in this part of the course. For the higher classes, the exercises consist of lessons in making joints, and the elementary study of strains, followed by practice in casting and working metal, and closing with the construction of a small steam engine. At every stage of the course, the nature and limitations of the materials are used, the capacities of the tools employed, and the physical and mathematical properties of the objects constructed, are impressed upon the mind of the pupil. A firm foundation is thus laid for the future study of the natural sciences, and an intelligent understanding of abstract mathematics. Mechanical drawing accompanies the work of the shop throughout the entire course. Nothing is made until it has first been drawn, and the pupil, when he begins his construction, has thus a clear idea of what he intends to produce. The educational equivalents of our workshop instruction may therefore be summarized as follows: Practice of hand and eye, illustrative value in the teaching of geometry and physics, and important influence on character.

PART VI.

BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS, AND CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

CHAPTER I.

BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

More than ten years ago (March 30, 1878) the Legislature passed an Act providing for a commission to investigate the condition of the banking institutions of the State, and report the results annually to the Governor. This was done with the object of securing the people against the danger of being plundered by schemers and designing persons, who, under the display of fictitious capital and high interest, allure victims into their toils. When associations or individual firms are subjected to a rigid scrutiny of their affairs by properly constituted officers, backed by all the power of the law, the danger of being first deceived and then fleeced is to a very great extent removed from the people.

Statistical reports relating to the banks of the State are published by the Bank Commissioners every year, and the Administration as well as all the citizens are informed fully as to the condition of these fiscal institutions.

But there is another and most important institution, in which a large portion of our citizens are financially interested, of whose operations and conditions no report has so far been submitted. The building and loan associations of California have grown rapidly within the past few years. Of the thousands of people who put all their savings into them there are many who do not fully understand how they are operated, and many who know not whether the association to which they belong is in a solvent or insolvent, prosperous or precarious, condition. Next to the savings banks, if indeed not outranking them in importance, the building and loan associations are availed of chiefly by the working classes of the community. As this bureau was designed chiefly to look after the interests of the labor element, I considered that an investigation into the condition of the building and loan associations of this State would be most opportune and beneficial, especially as the work was never undertaken before.

Of course I had to depend upon the information furnished me by the officers of the associations, and their truthfulness or reliability could not be tested by personal investigation, as can be done by the Bank Commissioners. I had neither the means at my disposal, nor the law to support me in exacting compliance with my requests.

However, enough information has been obtained to make a most interesting and instructive exhibit of the building and loan associations of California, to which is prefixed a clear and detailed explanation of the methods by which they are established and put into practical operation.

More than one million three hundred thousand dollars ($1,300,000) per annum is now paid into these associations in this State. The Secretaries have the handling of this large sum. The need, therefore, of some kind of general official supervision and the necessity of periodical reports become apparent.

The law in Massachusetts authorizes the "Commissioners of Savings Banks to perform in reference to such associations, the same power and same duties as are given them in reference to savings banks and to report annually respecting them."

For the information and guidance of the members of the Legislature and all interested in the subject the laws relating to these associations in Maine, Massachusetts, and Illinois are appended to this report.

"The idea of combining small capitals and minute savings into a fund that might be used to build a home, buy bread and cheese, pay the doctor, start a shop, and insure against death and accident, has always been attractive to all who desire to benefit the people. The idea, under various names, has been made the theme of a great number of experiments, most of which have failed, and a few of which have proved of the greatest value to society. The building and loan association, a system of coöperation, is the idea of associating small individual capital for mutual saving and earning, which has done more real good to the people than any economical system yet proposed. They have built many hundred thousands of homes, saved tens of thousands of dollars for people who actually needed the help, made cheerful many a domestic hearth. They have taught the people economy and fair dealing, and their children prudence, thrift, and self-respect." Recognizing the importance of such associations, and knowing that a full and free treatment of the fundamental principles governing them would be of incalculable benefit, not only to the wage earners, but to all those who desire to secure a home, the following communication was addressed to the Secretaries of all such associations in California with a blank form of questions inclosed:

Secretary of the —— ——:

DEAR SIR: Your attention is called to the inclosed blank form, with the request that you fill it out as complete as possible, at your earliest convenience, and return to this office. I desire the information for statistical purposes of this bureau, whose reports are widely distributed among the laboring classes of the community. They will be encouraged, by reading facts relating to building and loan associations, to participate in the advantages of such investments. To insure success in acquiring complete data I have secured the coöperation of the undersigned Secretaries of like associations in San Francisco, who see the imperative necessity of encouraging the wage earners to give their attention and patronage to these enterprises. The investors do not understand the essential details about them, and therefore fail to become borrowers and stop paying rent. If the membership of associations generally were fully instructed and non-members enlightened as to the workings of the organizations, and how to borrow, the advantages of borrowing, etc., the number would rapidly increase. Hoping that no serious difficulty will be encountered in furnishing the desired data, we have the honor to subscribe ourselves,

Very respectfully, etc.,

—— ——.

ADVANTAGES OF BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

It is deemed hardly necessary to say that copies of the above letter, addressed to some forty Secretaries, met with great favor, and with only two exceptions the information was readily and cheerfully furnished.

To those who did not reply, it is reasonable to suppose that their associations were not in a condition to have the light shed upon them. Many enterprises, both public and private, have met with adversities which do

not always reflect much credit on the business capacity or integrity of their managers. Many of these associations in the southern part of the State are yet in their infancy, but very promising of great results. San Francisco, Oakland, and Alameda have associations which show with what success such enterprises have been developed in California.

In Philadelphia it is said that "there is more happiness to the square mile than in any other place in the world." The reasons for this being that the majority of the houses are small, and the happiest people live in the smallest houses. But this is not the chief reason, as other cities have very small houses, but very little happiness in them. In Philadelphia families own their own dwellings. They are traveling safely and steadily along the prosy road to fortune, or they have arrived there and are householders. It is the winning, the paying for the home, which has made Philadelphia famous. The peculiar manner in which the bills were paid and the landlord abolished has won the attention of thoughtful people throughout the country. In Philadelphia every man may be his own landlord and pay rent to himself. Small wonder is it that her people are steady, thrifty, and domestic in their habits. Real estate rises quickly; the stream of waste that flows to the dramshop is checked; the homely virtues flourish, and marriages increase in number. The young man knows how he can quickly and easily procure a home, and the young woman is more than ready to aid him if a house can be placed at her disposal for so little money. She can buy and even own the house herself independently of her husband, and both can combine to erect and own their own roof-tree, which shall also be their children's home, and the assured shelter for their declining years. No dreadful boarding house stares them in the face, and with reasonable care and industry they can put away the fear of the poorhouse forever. The home is the foundation of the State. The manner in which homes may be secured for all the people, therefore, deserves the careful consideration of the State.

The industrial classes are fast beginning to appreciate the advice which Mr. Micawber, when he was in jail for debt, gave to David Copperfield: "Copperfield, my boy, income £1, expenses 20s. 6d.; result, misery. Income £1, expenses 19s. 6d.; result, happiness."

The increasing interest shown in the study of economic questions proves that the problem how to get the most for one's money is more and more engrossing the attention of the wage earners.

These associations have done much to solve this question.

HOW BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS ORIGINATED.

The industrial classes, with small capital individually, contrive by accumulating their joint funds, to use their capital with as much advantage as the wealthiest monopolies. These associations are among the best tried and most successful of economic organizations. The idea of saving and loan associations, or as they were at first commonly, and even yet occasionally, called, building associations, had its origin in England about the time when all sorts of theories in regard to coöperative industry and investment were being promulgated and put through the crucial test of application to practical affairs. The theory of coöperation in savings and investments stood the test, and building associations multiplied and thrived. They were introduced into the United States, and where other coöperative enterprises have languished and died, they have flourished and increased almost marvelously. Philadelphia has always been regarded as the home of these organizations. Massachusetts early took up the idea, and multiplied the

number rapidly. New York, New Jersey, and adjacent States followed in the wake of Philadelphia and Massachusetts.

BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS OF CALIFORNIA.

Subsequently the same kind of organizations found existence and favor in the western States, crossing the Rocky Mountains into California sometime in the "sixties." The first association of this character is credited to Sacramento, and Simon J. Nathan was largely instrumental in its organization. It was known by the name of the Germania Building and Loan Society, started on the flat plan of what is known as the Terminating Plan, as was the case with five others, started in San Francisco in 1874 and 1875, and named the Mutual, Metropolitan, French, Pacific No. 1, and Standard, all of which are wound up and the shareholders paid off in full, or the mortgages released. The association is conducted as nearly on banking principles as possible, its aim and intention being the establishment of a mutual savings bank, in which the profits, instead of being applied on an idle surplus, shall be divided among the depositors. Among the benefits claimed for these institutions by those who have made a study of them, are these: They aid and encourage people to own their homes, and communities in which savings and loan associations abound are almost entirely free from labor strikes. The people feel the necessity of having money from week to week to make their small payments, and to do that they must have steady employment. Another respect in which they are an incalculable benefit to the people more than savings banks, is that the shareholder is obliged to make his payments monthly or submit to a fine. The depositor in a savings bank, on the other hand, can omit his regular deposit on account of real or seeming stringency in his private finances, with no penalty.

HOW BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS ARE OPERATED.

The system of these institutions have been reduced to an orderly and exact business. It exhibits lenders upon one side, borrowers for every purpose on the other side, the poor lending the rich, the rich both lending and borrowing. Commercially considered they are as safe as the common honesty of men can make them, and in every respect they are safer than the ordinary savings bank. The total collapses, the utter vanishing away of all the deposits, sometimes seen in a savings bank, cannot take place here. The older an institution grows, the richer it becomes. Each month its capital is renewed, and every year an entirely new set of shareholders bring in their fresh capital.

Certainly the depositors, be it the struggling shop girl, the laborious mechanic, or helpless widow, have everything to encourage, and little to make them afraid. It may happen that a dishonest Secretary, in conjunction with the Board of Directors, could abscond, leaving behind victims weeping, wailing, and gnashing of their teeth, as in the memorable cases of Messrs. Berry, of the Mutual; Otto Esche, of the Metropolitan, and Hollis, of the California. This is one of the principal reasons why these organizations, so directly benefiting the laboring class and the State, should be encouraged and incorporated under special laws of the State. In Philadelphia and Massachusetts they have a special legal existence, and have taken a firm hold in the respect and confidence of the people, and there can be no question that they are destined to do a great work for all concerned in house building. The State so encourages these enter-

prises in Philadelphia that the following Act was passed, May 22, 1883, exempting them from taxation for State purposes:

PENNSYLVANIA LAWS RELATING TO BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

WHEREAS, Mutual savings fund, loan, and building associations have been heretofore declared by law to be "meritorious and deserving the care of the State," because of the inducements they offer to the people to form habits of economy, and to become real estate owners, "thereby enriching and strengthening the commonwealth;" and, whereas, being copartnerships on the mutual beneficial plan, their profits are made from amongst their own numbers, and not from the outside public; and, whereas, such associations are, therefore, not proper subjects for taxation; therefore,

SECTION 1. Be it enacted, etc., that mutual, loan, and building associations shall be exempt from the provisions of each and every law imposing taxes for State purposes on their capital stock or mortgages, and other securities for moneys loaned to their own members; but the real estate owned by said associations shall be subject to the same rates of taxation as the real estate of other corporations and persons; *provided, however*, that the right of the commonwealth to collect taxes, already accrued, is hereby reserved.

STATE SUPERVISION.

It may be observed that these associations are under the supervision of the State Bank Inspector or other controlling officer, and that they stand on the same footing as savings banks. The depositor in such a bank is hedged about with every precaution; he is taught frugality, steadiness of purpose, and the elements of finance. The plain and only safe road to fortune is pointed out to him, and every step along the sometimes weary way is made the easier.

HOW TO ORGANIZE A BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATION.

Suppose a number of people in a certain place wish to start such an association. Some desire to furnish a safe and profitable means of saving the earnings of those about them; others wish to see the town built up, taxable property increase, and real estate raised in value, or they wish to buy or build a home. There is no capital in the town, except in the hands of one or two hard-fisted fellows, to deal with whom is always a trial and a grind. There is a good deal of money, in trifling sums, scattered through the place. If collected in one fund it might be of great benefit in many ways. These people meet at some private house and become the promoters of the enterprise.

The affair is duly talked over, and the result is that some twenty or more subscribe, say, $25 each, or one advances the money to the new association, and a fund is thus created. The little capital is to aid in getting account books, and to advertise the new association, etc. Thus far the association has no existence and no capital. The fund subscribed is only the "starting bar" which sets the train in motion. At a subsequent meeting the number of shares is fixed at, say, two thousand five hundred.

Any man, woman, or child can buy at $1 a share as many shares as is desired, up to a specified limit. (Most associations limit them to twenty-five.) If the people have faith in the promoters, they come forward and buy such as they desire. Perhaps four hundred shares are taken by about one hundred different people.

The next step is to organize, and to elect the officers and Directors. Each shareholder has one ballot (some associations allow as many votes as the number of shares a person holds), and the business is soon finished. The by-laws are prepared and accepted, and the association begins its existence. If time admits, the officers are installed that meeting, and the books of the concern are opened. The pass books and certificates of

stock are issued, the Treasurer presents his bonds, and the salary of the Secretary is fixed. Meanwhile others become interested, and call on the Secretary for shares. Any one who can pay $1 a month may purchase a share. Women, whether married or single, or the former, independent of their husbands, may take as many shares as they feel they are able to carry. Parents and guardians may invest for their charges. A month passes, and the next meeting is held at some small hall, or in a private office. The cheaper the rent of the room the better, for it gives the association a reputation for economy that gratifies the present members and wins new ones.

The second installment is now paid in, and more shares are sold at $2 each, and the association declares itself ready to loan money. The meeting is called to order, and the Secretary announces that the association sold at its first meeting perhaps four hundred shares; that some three hundred more were taken during the month, and that one hundred more were taken this meeting. He adds that two installments have been paid on each, and that about $1,400 is now for sale, something being withheld for expenses. If the premiums offered are high, a few hundred dollars more will be added to this amount. In this simple manner is the business of the association started. There is no confusion; no extravagant bill of expenses; no secret meeting of Directors, eager and thoughtful for their own interest only. All is plain, fair, and above-board. Any member may examine the books of these banks, on demand, and at the end of the year the stockholders appoint from among themselves three auditors, whose duty it is to turn the affairs of the association inside out, and to exhibit its every transaction; in the minutest detail, in a report. Should this report affirm neglect or irregular doings of any kind on the part of the officers; should it point out foolish loans, and ill-considered securities—anything wrong—the entire direction, President and all, may be dismissed, and better men put in their places.

One point here, and which would not be amiss for associations in general to look out for, is the privilege of allowing a stockholder a vote for every share of subscribed stock; the fallacy of which practice stands apparent, when it is possible that the leading shareholders can band together and control the deliberations of the meeting. This is an injustice to the single shareholder who has but one vote, consequently opening a feeling of distrust for those who have a plurality of votes. The spirit of unity and individuality that are characteristic of these enterprises lessen in favor by such a practice. One Board of Directors can hold office and suppress all traces of rottenness, by canvassing and securing the power of attorney to vote from members who are unable to be present at the annual meeting.

ADVANTAGES OF BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

To sum up the advantages of these associations by plain illustrations, let us suppose that a society has just been formed, five thousand shares have been subscribed, and Mr. A wishes to buy or build a house. He at first wishes to obtain, for example, $2,000. The proposition of Mr. A is put to the meeting by the Secretary. Probably Mr. B, or Mr. C, also desire a loan, and state so to the meeting. The right, therefore, to the money to be advanced is put up at auction. Mr. A bids 15 per cent bonus or premium, as it is technically called. Mr. B, anxious to receive the money, bids 20 per cent, while Mr. C, as anxious as either, bids 25 per cent. Mr. C being the highest bidder is entitled to the privilege of the loan. Mr. C in order to get the loan of this $2,000 must have ten or more shares of the

stock in the association, that is to say each member is allowed to borrow $200 on every share subscribed, less the bonus he bids for the priority. The committee appointed on loans examines the security offered, and subsequently reports pro or con on the propriety of granting the loan. The Board of Directors are consulted, the attorney examines the titles, etc., and the $2,000, less the 25 per cent premium, is paid. The great advantages of these associations now become apparent. Mr. C probably has paid rent for over ten years at $20 per month, which is equal to $2,400 he has paid out to a landlord at a total loss. With old age comes wisdom; he now determines to erect or purchase a home and stops paying rent. With the money he has just purchased, $2,000 less $500 premium, or $1,500, he buys a fine, cozy little home. He now feels new life, his wife becomes young and spirited again, his children at the prospect of such a change crowd nightly around the domestic hearth or climb their aged sire's knee to whisper words of comfort into his ear. Such happiness was never before felt in that domestic circle. The first month passes along smoothly, and the meeting night comes for him to pay his first installment on his home. Owning ten shares there is due $1 per month for each share—$10. Six per cent per annum is also payable on the $2,000, or $10, making a total of $20 a month he pays the association. Monthly he thus pays his dues, until at the end of the period the following will be the result of his status:

To monthly installments on stock, 120 months	$1,200
To monthly interest on loan, 120 months	1,200
Full amount paid association	$2,400

The house is the man's own, the mortgage is discharged, and his paying rent is stopped forever. Had rents continued to be paid during these years he would have paid $2,400 out and still have been without a home. In the meantime his property has enhanced in value, his children have grown to manhood and womanhood, the prop and support of his declining years. No rent to pay, no poorhouse staring them in the face, no landlord with itching palm pestering him to madness. Let us now turn to Mr. A and Mr. B and see what they have been doing all these years. They became dissatisfied and withdrew from the association, going to a bank for their money. The bank advanced $2,000 on good security, appraised at 40 per cent more than they advanced, charging 6 per cent interest. For this loan of $2,000, at 7 per cent per annum, Mr. A and B must pay yearly $140.

Interest for ten years	$1,400 00
Principal	2,000 00
	$3,400 00
Amount paid association by C	2,400 00
Difference in borrowing from bank	$1,000 00

Instead of paying slowly but surely, as Mr. C, into the association, A and B were paying interest on the capital without reducing the capital itself. Some untoward circumstances may occur, payment of interest is demanded, it cannot be met, and the result foreclosure. The house and home are lost, the interest paid the bank is in the pockets of capitalists, who are smiling contemptuously at your failure. These institutions are undoubtedly destined to supersede the savings banks, owing to the superior advantages they offer to the people. The net plan of these associations in paying the premium monthly with the interest is certainly far better than the gross plan of deducting the full premium from the loan. It is less

liable to create a feeling of distrust among the members. Fixing the payments is far better than the uncertainty of bidding at auction. It opens a system of competition, which is not in harmony with the spirit of helping one another to a common end. The best way to help people is to make it as easy as possible for them to secure a home that will shelter them from the storms and rains that are in every life.

METHOD OF CONDUCTING BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

The modus operandi of conducting the loans of these associations is graphically illustrated in the following categorical manner by C. K. Clarke, Secretary of several of these associations:

In what respect does the building association loan differ from other loans?

In almost all loans (whether from a bank or a private capitalist) where security is required, you give your note due at a certain time with interest; you are required to pay the interest at stated times, and the note itself when due. There is also what is called the installment loan, which calls for the payment of a certain amount of the note monthly with the interest. Such payments, if made regularly, pay off the mortgage in a given number of years. The building association loan differs from these loans in the following important particulars:

First—You are the owner of a certain number of shares in a building and loan association, which entitle you to $200 for each share you hold. You took the shares to obtain a loan, or, more properly speaking, to obtain in advance the par value of the shares.

Second—Having obtained this advance or loan you are obligated to pay promptly certain monthly dues of $1 per share and the interest on the gross amount of the loan.

Third—If you perform these obligations regularly the association never can call in the loan, and the note is paid by the stock dues and the profits, which are credited, as it were, to your account as a stockholder.

Fourth—The so called mortgage which you give is security to the association that the obligations mentioned above will be met. If you fail to meet them you forfeit the security; in other words, the mortgage then becomes due and is payable out of the sale of the security. As a borrowing member in a building association, you are simply a paid-off stock member or an "advanced" member holding "redeemed" stock, and the interest which you pay continues until the association can pay off $200 to all members in the series, when you will receive a release of the mortgage, and the non-borrowing member will receive $200 for each share he holds.

Do you recommend such a loan to all persons; if not, tell me whom it benefits?

I do not recommend such a loan to a speculating capitalist, nor to any one who has not a steady monthly income from some source. I do not recommend such a loan to one who cannot see and appreciate the benefit of small savings, and who prefers a continuing debt or loan to a gradually canceling debt. I do not recommend such a loan to a person who wants the accommodation for a few years only, and who would take it with the expectation of repaying the principal of the note before maturity. The building and loan association is not a bank. Its borrowers may be called paid-off stockholders under mortgage, and its investing stockholders are expected to become such sooner or later, or withdraw. It is true that short "loans" on mortgage or stock security are sometimes made, but when a bonus is bid for the loan they are not profitable to the maker, while that association is the most prosperous and successful which adheres strictly to the fundamental principles of its organization and the purpose for which it was created, viz.: to issue stock, create a fund, and from that fund to permanently retire the shares at par value, in such order as may be determined by the bonus or premium paid for priority right.

Among those who are in a position to successfully use the building and loan association as borrowers, I may mention the following: Mr. A owns land, which is paid for and is clear of debt. He wants money to the extent of 60 or 80 per cent of its market value, for the purposes of business, or for paying off an accumulation of liabilities, or for the purchase of other real property. Mr. B owns a building lot, fully paid for or nearly so. He wants money to build thereon a dwelling to be used for a private residence, for the payment of which the monthly installments and interest will not exceed a sum for which the same would rent. Mr. C has saved and laid by a sum of money sufficient to make a one fourth or a one fifth payment towards the purchase of a lot, with improvements of a dwelling house, etc., all complete. He wants money on a mortgage of the premises to complete the purchase and obtain the deed. Mr. D has owned for a number of years a lot, or a house and lot, upon which a mortgage due to the bank or a private capitalist have been standing. As there is a prospect of its continuing to stand unpaid for an unlimited number of years, he wants money to obtain a release of the standing mortgage by substituting a mortgage that will pay itself off in due course of time.

Mr. E owns unimproved property in a locality where houses would readily find tenants, or could be sold to those desiring to purchase by paying monthly installments extending over a period of six, eight, or ten years. He wants money to make such building improvements from time to time. All these persons find the building and loan association just

what they need to help them; and it is among such persons the building and loan association looks for members.

What kind of a contract do I enter into when I borrow from a building and loan association?

As this is an important question, I will state the nature of your contract as the law on building and loan associations gives it. When a member of a building and loan association becomes a borrower his contract may in general be said to embrace the following essential features:

1. The member agrees to receive the advancement from the building association, and to allow for the privilege of the preference a certain stipulated price, premium, or bonus.

2. He undertakes, and gives security in support of the undertaking, faithfully to perform to the termination of the society's existence, or the running of a series, all the requirements of its constitution and by-laws relative to stock payments or dues, fines, and other charges, upon and in respect of the shares held by him (which, as a rule, he pledges to the society as collateral security), and to be liable for and discharge all proper dues, assessments, contributions, and charges arising upon them, in the same proportion and in the same manner as the rest of the members, and, in addition, to make a fixed periodical payment by way of interest on his loan.

3. He agrees, upon the termination of the society or series, when its assets shall become distributable, that it shall appropriate to its own reimbursement the proportion accruing to such of his shares as were advanced to him.

4. He agrees that, in case of his failure at any time to perform the continuing conditions of his undertaking for a certain period, or for such remissness in the payment of dues, etc., as would be ground for forfeiture of his shares as a member, the society shall be absolved from the necessity of waiting until the period of dissolution for its payment, and shall have the right to demand and recover it from him at once, including in the debt not only the amount actually loaned, but all payments and charges which may lawfully, under his obligation as member and borrower, be demanded from him.

The building association, in its turn, assumes corresponding obligations towards the borrower.

1. It agrees to let him have the use of the money advanced during the continuance of the society's legal life, or the running of a series, providing he lives up to his undertaking.

2. In the meanwhile it is to receive and invest the payments made by him, both as dues and as, or in lieu of, interest, in the same manner as those of other members and as part of the common fund.

3. Finally, upon the winding up of the concern it is to account to him for such proportion of his whole accumulation as may be coming to his share, retaining so much as may be necessary to cover his proportionate share of the losses and expenses and applying the balance to the liquidation of his debt, including the actual advance, interest, fines, and premium, according to his undertaking, and thereupon canceling his securities.

If I borrow $1,000 from a building and loan association and get only $800, what becomes of the difference—$200?

The difference between the face of your note and the amount of money which you receive is the premium or bonus which is bid in order to secure the advance or loan with all the advantages accompanying such a loan. But you do not state the fact correctly. You would understand it better if I state it thus for you: You borrow $800 and agree to pay $200 additional as the premium, making $1,000. The note which you give consists of two items: First, the money you receive, and, second, the premium which you agree to pay.

When do I pay that premium?

You pay that premium by and through the profits of the association, and in no other way, unless you forfeit your loan by breaking your contract, or repaying your loan before the profits have paid the premium for you.

Then, if I continue the loan until my shares have paid it up, I do not in reality pay any premium—I simply agree to pay it. Is that the case?

We take your note to represent your debt at the rate of $200 for every share thus "redeemed," and the note and mortgage convey a promise on your part to repay said money upon the terms and conditions laid down in the by-laws of the association. Those terms and conditions constitute a part of that peculiar scheme called the building and loan association, and when carried out on the principle of equity to all, the results are sometimes truly surprising.

Show me how my shares pay the note, including the premium which is combined with the note?

By way of illustration, I will take a case from actual experience from the books of an Oakland association, and will show you how a note and mortgage can be paid off year by year, and so paid off that less than two thirds of the amount actually received will be returned in cash, not including interest. The loan was $800, including $200 premium, making a note and mortgage of $1,000 given by the member in 1876. The account may be stated as follows:

Loan, with $200 premium			$1,000 00
Repaid as follows:			
1877.	12 months, 5 shares at $13 94	$69 70	
	Balance due		930 30
1878.	24 months, 5 shares at $32 12	160 60	
	Balance due		839 40
1879.	36 months, 5 shares at $51 21	256 05	
	Balance due		743 95

1880.	48 months, 5 shares at $73 55	$367 75	
	Balance due		$632 25
1881.	60 months, 5 shares at $97 10	485 50	
	Balance due		514 50
1882.	72 months, 5 shares at $125 05	610 25	
	Balance due		389 75
1883.	84 months, 5 shares at $147 40	737 00	
	Balance due		263 00
1884.	96 months, 5 shares at $175	875 00	
	Balance due		125 00
1885.	104 months, 5 shares at $200	1,000 00	
	Release given.		

On the above loan $520 was paid as dues; the balance of the note of $800 was paid by profits. The $200 of premium was also paid by profits.

The above illustration shows the balance that was due on the loan from year to year. If the member had repaid the loan at the end of the second year he would have received no apparent benefit from his stock payments, as in repaying the loan he would have paid the association $39 40 more than he received.

At the end of the fifth year, if he had repaid the loan, he would have received the benefit of his payment on *dues only*, viz.: $300, which, deducted from $800 (the amount he received), would leave $500 to pay.

If I take five shares, am I not entitled to a loan of $1,000, or $200 per share?

If you take five shares as a borrower, you will receive from $160 to $180 per share, according to the rate of premium prevailing.

But do I not give an obligation to pay $200 per share, and pay interest on $200 for each share borrowed on, and thus pay interest on more money than I receive?

You pay interest on more money than you received because the amount you did *not* receive is the amount you agree to pay for the right of obtaining the money ahead of the member or members who may have bid a little less than you did.

If you say that you borrowed $1,000 and paid $200 for the loan, then I say the $200 is given back to you as the loan matures.

If you say you borrowed $800 and agreed to pay $200 for the priority right (which is the correct statement), then I say your promise to pay is redeemed by the association itself; the $200 premium is canceled and taken up by the profits coming as your gain on five shares.

If I do not borrow then I will receive $200 per share, will I not?

The man who is not compelled to borrow will become rich faster than the one who is; but between two borrowers, the one who borrows from his own loan association will become rich and get out of debt faster than the one who borrows elsewhere. If you borrow, the prospect is that you will receive $160 to $180 on your (200) shares, and have the use and benefit of that money for many years. If you do *not* borrow, the prospect is that you will receive no more than $160 to $180 per share under the plan upon which associations are now conducted, for the associations will not guarantee to mature all non-borrowers' stock, especially if too large a proportion of members refuse to become borrowers.

What regulates the rate of premium?

The rate of premium is regulated in the same manner as the price of everything else is regulated, viz.: the supply and demand. If an association has $4,000 per month to sell, and $8,000 is wanted by five or ten members, the premium will be high. If an association has no money on hand, but borrows and sells the income of the following month or months to supply the demand of members, premiums will then be maintained at such a rate as will pay the association to borrow or overdraw from the Treasurer's account.

What inducements are offered sufficient to warrant members in paying $40 to $50 per share premium—that is to say, twenty to twenty-five per cent?

If the premium becomes established by custom at a certain rate, that will, with the interest at a certain rate, mature shares in say eight years, members are doing themselves no injustice if they pay that rate. If they pay less than the average, they gain that much over others; if they pay more than the average they lose that much. Directors aim, as far as possible, to maintain the premium at an even rate each year by allowing no accumulation of money, and by active efforts in keeping up the demand for loans, in which work all members are equally interested.

If the membership of an association, investors and borrowers, are satisfied to run a series out in ten to twelve years, they will be satisfied to pay and receive low premiums. It follows that the lower the premium and interest the smaller is the amount to be paid at the beginning, and the greater is the amount to be paid before the end is reached. The higher the premium and interest the greater is the amount to be paid at the beginning, causing less to be paid to reach the end.

Members bidding for money are governed by the following considerations:

1. The money is to be obtained on loan, with facilities for the gradual liquidation of the debt not elsewhere to be obtained.

2. The amount of money obtained is generally more than could be obtained elsewhere on the same security.

3. The probability that the amount the borrower will be obliged to lay out in the eventual return of the loan will be a sum much less than the amount actually received, not including interest. All these considerations, together with the mutuality of the whole plan, amply compensates members for offering an apparent high rate of premium.

If my loan is (for example) $800, premium $200, why is it that if I repay it before maturity many associations require me to pay $1,000, less the value of the shares at the time of repayment, and allow nothing more?

This opens up a question of considerable interest and importance. It is true that although you have had $800 and agreed to pay $200 more, you will not be required, under the scheme, to actually pay more than $550 of principal in the shape of dues, if continued until the ultimate value of $200 per share is reached; but with your obligation to pay dues was also the obligation to pay interest, the two together making a payment (with interest at 6½ per cent per year) of $10 50 per month. Now, if the shares were to continue say one hundred and eight months (nine years) before arriving at maturity, the sum of all your monthly payments, interest included, in that time would be $1,134. If, now, you wished to repay the loan after making thirty-six monthly payments, the payments made, viz., $378, would be deducted from the whole amount of payment due, viz., $1,134, leaving $756 as the balance of the loan due three years after taking the advance.

In four years the balance would be	$630
In five years the balance would be	504
In six years the balance would be	378
In seven years the balance would be	252
In eight years the balance would be	125

It will be observed that the above balances, ascertained by the rule just laid down, nearly correspond with those given heretofore by an association in actual operation, and found by deducting the book value of the shares from year to year from the gross amount of the loan. "The true view to be taken of a building association loan, in fact, is that the return of the money received, at any period intermediate between the time of taking it and the time of the ultimate squaring of accounts upon the expiration of the society or series, is not contemplated by the contract. That money is never, before that period, intended to be collected or repaid. The essential feature of the contract is the continued payment of certain dues; the incident, the payment of interest as a compensation for the use of the money.

"Such, then, being the real nature of the borrower's undertaking—to continue, throughout, certain stipulated payments—it would appear that the very terms of the contract precluded any determination of its requirements before the period set by itself. But it promptly became recognized that a method by which the borrower would substantially comply with the requirements of his contract might absolve him from the literal fulfillment of it; *i.e.*, that having obligated himself to a long series of small payments, he might be allowed to substitute, in lieu thereof, a single larger one, equal, at once, to the aggregate of all the smaller ones.

"The rule has, therefore, been adopted in England, and recognized in America, that a borrowing member of a building association may redeem his property mortgaged and discharge his indebtedness to the same, upon payment of all the future subscriptions which would accrue against him until the winding up of the series, its probable duration to be ascertained by calculation, and the future payments to be treated as if immediately due."

Several cases which define the rights of repaying borrowers have been decided by the Courts. They have held that an advance made to a member upon his shares was not a loan; but an anticipatory payment, by way of discount, of the shares he would otherwise have been entitled to at the termination of the series; and that the mortgage deed was to secure future subscriptions, etc., until that period, and that a member could only redeem upon payment of his subscriptions down to the end of the estimated duration of the series.

Some associations allow the return of loans upon more liberal terms to the borrower than those I have mentioned, such, for instance, as allowing a certain part of the premium to be deducted upon payment of the loan. Others inquire into the circumstances of the case, and make such terms upon which repayment can be made as will be just to the association as well as to the borrower, keeping in mind the settled principles of building association law governing the contract.

I understand you do not think it is profitable to repay a loan; is that so?

Unless the directors allow you a deduction from your loan on account of the premium which you owe, it is not profitable to repay a loan which has run less than five years. Unless circumstances compel you to repay the loan, or you find your association is being managed at a loss and in danger of being ruined, you will lose by repaying your loan before maturity. You will always gain by allowing your installments of dues, etc., to repay the loan. Hence it is that Directors do not encourage the return of loans and are under no obligations to make the terms of return so liberal that the loans will come in and go out as in a bank, between which and a building association there is a wide difference.

How would you recommend the settlement of a building association loan between buyer and seller of the property mortgaged?

I would recommend the basis to be first the gross amount of the loan, and from that deduct such proportion of the premium as remains unpaid; estimating eight years, one eighth of the premium would be paid each year. From this balance deduct the full value of the shares. Let me illustrate it thus: A loan was made by A for $800, premium $200, two years ago at the beginning of the series; in selling the property now to B for $1,500, how much must B pay A if he continues the mortgage with the association in A's place?

Gross loan	$1,000
Less six eighths of the premium ($200) unpaid	150
	$850
Less value five shares two years old	150
	$700

Total sale $1,500, from which deduct $700 above, leaving $800 cash due from B to A in settlement.

The same result is arrived at if we take the—

Net amount	$800
Add the two eighths (two years) premium paid	50
	$850
Deduct the value of the shares	150
Balance	$700

to deduct from the price ($1,500), leaving $800 due from buyer to seller.

What steps do I take to obtain a loan, and to repay it before maturity if I choose to do so?

To obtain a loan you must own shares—one share for every $200 of your loan.

Every member is entitled to bid for money; and to become a member you must pay at least one month's installment on your shares and sign the by-laws.

Money is sold once a month, on the nights when payments are made. You will attend the meeting, and when the money is offered, make your bid. The money will be knocked down to the highest bidder. If you cannot attend the meeting, you will delegate some one to act for you in bidding off the loan.

You will present your application at once, stating the security which you offer for the loan. If the security has not been previously examined by the committee, it will be referred to the committee, whose duty it is to report upon the application. The committee will make a report at the following meeting. If it is favorable, and recommended by the Board of Directors, your application, with whatever papers you have, will be referred to the attorney of the association to examine the title and prepare note, mortgage, and other papers necessary for you to sign.

After the mortgage has been placed on record you will be entitled to a payment, either in full or on account, of the loan. If the money is to be applied on a building to be erected, the payments will be made in two or three amounts as the building progresses, and the money will be paid upon orders drawn and signed by the Finance or Security Committee. If the loan is made upon unimproved property, or upon property already improved, the payment will be made in one amount. You have now received your loan or advance, and hereafter, with every payment of your monthly dues, you will also make a payment of interest according to the rate established.

If, now, you want to repay your loan before the maturity of the shares, you will make an application for that purpose to the Board of Directors, and they will notify you upon what terms they will receive the loan back. If at any time you want to know the balance due on your loan in order to ascertain how you stand, apply to the Secretary, and it will be his duty to inform you. From the first to the fifth year about one twelfth of the mortgage will be paid off each year. From the fifth to the ninth it will be paid off more rapidly.

You have explained a great deal to me about the loan, now let me ask you what guarantee or assurance have I that what is expected of the building and loan association will be realized?

Join a good association. If it has a good back history or record, all the better. In any event you must have confidence in those who are managing the institution. The principles upon which the scheme is conducted have been so thoroughly tried and tested by sixty years of practice in the United States that they may be relied upon. Men must be trusted to carry them out successfully. If you know that you are in an association with honest men, who understand the business, you may know that you have a good thing. If you don't know your men, then find them out, and watch them in any and every case, and never cease to watch them, and hold them to a strict account for their stewardship. We believe the building and loan associations in California are in the hands of good men. The day in which small savings are despised among us is fast passing away.

In the Eastern States building and loan associations have come into popular favor so rapidly that few persons realize the influence they have on the welfare of society. In Philadelphia their benefit to the commonwealth has been recognized in releasing them entirely from all taxation. In that city of nearly a million, seven tenths of the people own the homes they live in, acquired through the building and loan associations.

The capital stock of the building and loan associations of the United States, a writer says, exceeds the national debt, and is equal to the capital stock of the railways.

The associations number several thousand, and represent the most gigantic system of coöperation ever undertaken in the world.

From the returns to this office, it is found that the associations are run in all shapes and ways, and the "interest question" figures to suit the majority of the officers. In some parts of California the success of these

associations is phenomenal, while in others they drag along. Every accommodation is offered to dispose of stock; some lend money on both gross and net plan, and figure the premium and interest at a minimum in order to render those enterprises more successful. But the great trouble with the associations is that speculators go into them, take from forty to fifty shares, borrow the full amount, build houses and fill them with tenants, thus placing working people in a position where the idea of a home of their own is impossible.

Another evil is their organization by men simply to get elected Secretary for the sake of the emoluments of office. It is imperatively necessary, as a matter of public information, and for protection to the hundreds of wage earners of the community, that the associations should file annual statements somewhere. Some of the Secretaries have indorsed the idea of a law being passed compelling them to report to the State Bank Commissioners. Some also advocate the idea of organizing a State league of building and loan associations in order to disseminate information relating to these institutions, compare experiences, secure uniformity of procedure and method in their organization and management, so as to run without new ones copying the errors of old ones, thus placing them on a basis of strength and stability. The attorneys of some of these associations spoken to are one in recommending having special State laws passed for them.

UNFAIR DISTRIBUTION OF SHARES.

Where these associations are regulated and protected by law, they offer greater opportunities to the wage classes. Capitalists and speculators cannot monopolize them nor divert them from their legitimate purposes. In several of the associations most of the shares are subscribed by men of means, who invest to realize a high rate of interest, or as a speculation. Some hold one hundred shares, some forty and fifty, others twenty and thirty, while very few are found where the shares are less than ten. These men with one hundred shares are entitled to a vote for every share. The poor, struggling workingman with but five shares is a pigmy when compared to the capitalist shareholder. The law should throw all possible safeguards about these poor investors. It could specify the details of management, the limitation of salaries and expenses, the regulation of the maximum stock to be held by any one person, fixing the matter of electing officers, limiting the vote to one share, independent of the number of subscribed shares. In other words, it would be placing the whole management and machinery into the hands of the membership. It must be remembered that these institutions are not speculative in character. They make no representations of golden hue, promising the wealth of King Solomon's mines, or fabulous fortunes, as the advertisements read, to a "good, steady, reliable, and energetic man with a little capital." They do, however, offer to the workman with a little patience and self-denial, a home at a cost of about the amount that would be paid for rent in eight or nine years. Many of the wage classes who are borrowers in these associations complain of the expense that is met with in arranging mortgages, and the drawing up of them by attorneys. This matter could be obviated by the Legislature prescribing a blank form to be used in common by all associations.

NECESSITY OF LEGAL PROTECTION.

Kansas, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maine, Illinois, Massachusetts, and several other States have laws regulating these associations.

Illinois and Massachusetts, as being the most complete, are herewith appended. These laws have a tendency to infuse hope and confidence into timid investors. They protect the weak against the strong, the poor against the rich, and few speculative and unscrupulous men have control of them or use the funds for personal aggrandizement.

This bureau encountered great trouble from several Secretaries when they were asked to send a detailed statement of the resources of their respective associations. The reports sent us in many cases were neither satisfactory nor intelligible, reflecting but little credit on their managing officers, which fact alone confirms the representation made of the great need of an inspection by proper official authorities.

The Mechanics Building and Loan Association of Sacramento, and the Oroville Building and Loan Association, notwithstanding the repeated urgency of the bureau, refused to respond, nor did the Secretaries have the courtesy to acknowledge the receipt of the many letters sent.

MASSACHUSETTS BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

That these institutions have met with great favor in the East, and are enlisted in the confidence of the people, is evident from the report for 1887 of the Bank Commissioners of Massachusetts.

They say that these institutions have largely increased the past year, numbering now fifty-one, an increase of eleven, the largest gain in any one year during their history. The steady and rapid growth of the coöperative banks of this State, their increasing financial strength, and continued development, manifests their hold upon the community and importance and value therein. The compulsory character of these institutions in relation to the monthly savings of their members is an element of their strength, and a very important factor in serving the interests of their depositors in developing methodical habits as well as securing accumulations and acquiring homes.

The total assets of the building and loan associations of Massachusetts, October 31, 1887, were $4,211,948 86, a gain over last year of $982,982 24.

THE BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS OF CALIFORNIA.

California has sixty building and loan associations, seventeen of which are situated in San Francisco, six in Alameda County, eight in Los Angeles County, and the remainder are scattered throughout the different parts of the State. New ones are springing up daily; five were organized during the years 1872–73–74–75; three between 1876 and 1880; fourteen between 1880 and 1886; five in 1886; nineteen in 1887, and for the first six months of 1888 five have been organized. The year 1887 seems to mark a new era in the impetus given to these enterprises. They sprung up in all parts of California like the magic seed of the Indian juggler, which grew, blossomed, and bore fruit before the eye of the spectator.

The number of incorporated shares of all the institutions in the aggregate is two hundred and sixty-one thousand seven hundred and fifty, representing a total corporated capital of $47,500,000. Seven are what are called the terminating associations, and the balance, fifty-three, are the serial or permanent associations. Seven are on the verge of maturing, as the stock has reached the par value of $200. The total number of subscribed shares, one hundred and nine thousand three hundred and seventy-three, is divided among ten thousand and eighty shareholders, or an

average of ten to each, making $109,373 that is paid into these associations monthly. Three thousand eight hundred and ninety-six loans have been made, equal to $4,388,251 77, used by the members in paying off mortgages or building themselves homes. The profits allowed to withdrawing members vary from 4 to 8 per cent, averaging about 6 per cent. As indicated in Table I I, the opinion is expressed that these associations will mature in from six to nine years, while it is quite evident to me that a few will not be matured at the millenium. But, by prudent and honest management, the average time of maturity is nine years.

REMARKS FROM OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF THE BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

No. 1. Considering the field in which this association was organized less than two years ago, also the absolute want of knowledge regarding these institutions prevalent among our community, there is no doubt that the promoters of this association have to congratulate themselves upon the success attained thus far. In our membership we have all our best citizens; the institution is growing steadily in favor; it has helped many to acquire homes or wipe out otherwise burdensome indebtedness; and more are getting ready to avail themselves of its aid. In closing I would request you to send me, when published, some of the reports, which I would gladly distribute around here.

No. 2. We would be pleased to receive from you any information in regard to building and loan associations that you might be enabled to furnish us with. We hope your efforts to promote our mutual interests may be successful and productive of much good.

No. 3. We are yet young and in a very crude condition, but are working up into regularity. At first many do not understand the plans and are careless and sometimes delinquent, but we hope soon to make a plain showing.

No. 4. I filled out the blank as well as I could. We are only one month old yet, so it is hard to give a better statement. I hope this will meet the required information of the bureau.

No. 5. A large portion of our stockholders are men working for salaries and are workingmen, some of whom never saved a dollar in their lives until induced to save through the association.

No. 4. I would advocate a State League, whereby the Secretaries of all the building and loan associations in the State could hold an annual convention and inaugurate a uniform method of procedure, talk over matters of the past year, and introduce new forms that would materially advance the cause of these associations. They should be released from taxation for State purposes.

No. 5. These associations should report annually to some source, either to the Bank Commissioners, State Labor Bureau, or to a special committee selected in convention by all the Secretaries in the State.

No. 6. Many of our associations are used for speculative purposes. The number of votes for a shareholder should be regulated by law. A good law may be beneficial, but it should be free from all "loop holes."

No. 7. As for myself, I should like to see these institutions regulated by law, but am afraid it would meet with great opposition from the majority of the Directors. Monopoly can control these associations at present.

No. 8. These institutions encourage thrift and economy among the poor people. The land of the classes is soon acquired by the masses, as we build or buy homes for all borrowers. Such associations are productive of the best of fruits, having built thousands of homes in Pennsylvania. The people of California are too greedy for fortunes, desiring to grow rich in too short a time. The time is coming when people will see the inevitable good results of small investments. The savings banks are antagonistic to these enterprises, and try to discourage people. A law could do no good; besides, we are a private corporation and should conduct our own affairs. We are partners in a common cause, and repose trust in our Directors. Several cases have occurred where the Secretaries got off with the funds, but the people should elect honest Secretaries.

No. 9. The Secretaries do not receive salaries enough. All enterprises should pay the man who minds the finances a decent amount. Too much secrecy is manifested in the different associations. If the State should enact special laws it should stipulate a proper salary for the Secretary. Many people have secured homes from these associations. I got myself a home through them and bought other property besides.

No. 10. I do not know of what nature special laws should be, nor what good they could do; but, if they have been productive of good in other States, I suppose the necessity may exist here for them. The Secretaries and Boards of Directors manage the affairs of the associations to suit themselves, which is nobody's business but the shareholders. They encourage economy and to my knowledge have saved many who were living from a hand to mouth sort of a way. Our association is young, but has met with great favor.

SUGGESTIONS FROM SECRETARIES OF BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

No. 1. In consideration that these institutions are meritorious, and help the poor to obtain a home, and thus make better citizens, they should be exempted from paying the mortgage taxes, as they are in some of the Eastern States, where the great good which they do is well known.

No. 2. Mortgage taxes should not be charged to these institutions, as they make good citizens of all their members.

No. 3. These institutions should be fostered by the State, as they help the poor to obtain a home, and thus make good citizens. The mortgage tax should be abolished.

TABLE L L.

I—Building, Loan, and Savings Associations in California.

Full Name of Association.	Location.	Date of Incorporation.	Number of Incorporated Shares.	Amount of Incorporated Capital.	Terminating on Serial Plan.	How Often are Shares Issued in Series.	Name of the Secretary.
Citizens Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Jan. 14, 1885	15,000	$3,000,000	Serial	Quarterly	Chas. K. Clark.
Commercial Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Dec. 21, 1886	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	Chas. K. Clark.
California Mutual Savings Fund, Loan, and Building Association	San Francisco	Mar. 26, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	S. R. Church.
Equitable Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Oct. 21, 1885	5,000	1,000,000	Terminating		J. A. Fischer.
Fidelity Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Mar. 19, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	W. Lutz.
Franklin Building and Savings Association	San Francisco	———, 1875	3,000	600,000	Serial	Every six years	W. Hatje.
Home Mutual Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Dec. 2, 1885	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	Chas. K. Clark.
Italian-Swiss Mutual Loan Association	San Francisco	April 1, 1887	10,000	2,000,000	Serial	Annually	A. Sbarboro.
Mutual Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	San Francisco	June 4, 1883	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	J. W. Butler.
National Home and Loan Association	San Francisco	Nov. 5, 1885	5,000	1,000,000	Terminating		N. Schlessinger.
Occidental Loan Association	San Francisco	Aug. 24, 1885	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	L. L. Dennery.
Providence Building and Loan Association	San Francisco	Sept. 24, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	S. Eppstein.
Pacific Loan Association	San Francisco	Dec. 4, 1884	10,000	2,000,000	Serial	Annually	L. L. Dennery.
San Francisco Mutual Loan Association	San Francisco	Oct. 28, 1882	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	A. Sbarboro.
Security Loan Association	San Francisco	April 19, 1888	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	L. Blank.
Union Loan Association	San Francisco	May 1, 1881	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	L. L. Dennery.
Western Loan Association	San Francisco	Nov. 10, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	L. L. Dennery.
Alameda Building and Loan Association	Alameda	Mar. 27, 1876	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	Chas. K. Clark.
California Building and Loan Association	Alameda	Feb. 9, 1888	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	*	Chas. E. Naylor.
Homestead Loan Association	Berkeley	Mar. 3, 1886	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	Chas. K. Clark.
Benicia Building and Loan Association	Benicia	Jan. 11, 1883	3,000	600,000	Serial	Annually	O. B. Allison.
Colton Building and Loan Association	Colton	Jan. 3, 1883	1,000	200,000	Terminating		John G. Sloane.
Fresno Building and Loan Association	Fresno	July 25, 1887	1,500	300,000	Serial	*	Geo. E. Freeman.
Metropolitan Loan Association	Los Angeles		5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	
Southern California Loan Association	Los Angeles	Mar. 11, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	*	Chas. Hornback.
Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	Los Angeles	Mar. 13, 1883	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	E. H. Grasett.
Union Building and Loan Association	Los Angeles	Jan. 23, 1888	2,000	200,000	Serial	*	J. Marchant.
Columbia Loan and Building Association	Los Angeles	Feb. 14, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	*	A. Willharitz.
East Side Building and Loan Association	Los Angeles	July 10, 1887	2,500	500,000	Serial	Annually	E. A. Weed.
The National City Building and Loan Association	National City	Nov. 4, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	Wm. Burgess.

Napa Building and Loan Association	Napa	April 27, 1886	6,000	1,200,000	Serial	Annually	F. N. Mount.
Orange Building and Loan Association	Orange	Sept. 26, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	*	E. A. Dian.
Oroville Building and Loan Association	Oroville						J. V. Coleman.
Home Security Building and Loan Association	Oakland	July 20, 1875	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	Chas. K. Clark.
Cosmopolitan Mutual Building and Loan Association	Oakland East	Aug. 7, 1879	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Semi-annually	P. F. Morehouse.
West Oakland Mutual Loan Association	Oakland West	July 21, 1875	3,000	600,000	Serial	Annually	A. Sbarboro.
Pasadena Building and Loan Association	Pasadena	June 8, 1886	1,250	250,000	Terminating		T. Coleman.
South Riverside Building and Loan Association	South Riverside	——, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	F. J. Dyer.
Stockton Land, Loan, and Building Association	Stockton	Jan. 3, 1887	2,500	500,000	Serial		R. E. Wilhoit.
San José Building and Loan Association	San José	Jan. 30, 1885	7,500	1,500,000	Serial	Annually	H. W. Wright.
Marin County Mutual Building and Loan Association	San Rafael	July 19, 1886	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	J. Christieson.
The Loan Building Association of Santa Barbara	Santa Barbara	May 23, 1887	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	*	J. F. Johnson.
San Bernardino Building and Loan Association	San Bernardino	Jan. 11, 1887	2,500	500,000	Serial	*	T. A. Hunt.
Santa Ana Loan and Building Association	Santa Ana	Feb. 8, 1887	2,000	50,000	Terminating		J. B. Fulkerson.
San Luis Building and Loan Association	San Luis Obispo	Feb. 13, 1888	5,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	D. M. Meredith.
Sausalito Mutual Loan Association	Sausalito	Dec. 1, 1887	10,000	1,000,000	Serial	Annually	R. George.
San Diego Building and Loan Association	San Diego	July 11, 1885	2,500	500,000	Serial	Annually	T. Tintzelberg.
San Diego Savings and Loan Association	San Diego	Nov. 11, 1887	2,500	500,000	Terminating		A. E. Peck.
The Pacific Beach Building and Loan Association	San Diego	Jan. 5, 1888	1,000	200,000	Serial	Semi-annually	
Occidental Building and Loan Association	Sacramento	Nov. —, 1877	2,500	250,000	Serial	Annually	E. K. Alsip.
Union Building and Loan Association	Sacramento	Dec. —, 1874	2,500	250,000	Serial	Annually	E. K. Alsip.
Germania Building and Loan Association	Sacramento	Dec. 31, 1872	20,000	2,000,000	Serial	*	H. J. Goethe.
Mechanics Building and Loan Association	Sacramento						W. R. Felter.
Sacramento Building and Loan Association	Sacramento	Aug. 26, 1874	6,000	600,000	Serial	Annually	A. Leonard.
Visalia Building and Loan Association	Visalia	Jan. 5, 1887	1,000	100,000	Serial	*	Julius Levy.
Woodland Building and Loan Association	Woodland	June 1, 1886	1,000	100,000	Terminating		E. T. Clowe.
Totals			261,750	$47,500,000			

* Fixed by Board of Directors.
N. B.—The First Savings and Loan Society of Oakland has just been organized.

TABLE M M.

II—Shares, Series, Withdrawals, Etc.

Name of Association.	Number of Shareholders.	Number of Shares Issued.	Estimated Time Required to Run Series to Par—Years.	No. of Series Matured.	No. of Months Oldest Series Has Run.	No. of Months Last Has Run.	Is Cash Paid for Shares Withdrawn.	Rate of Interest Allowed on Withdrawals.
Citizens Building and Loan Association	400	4,500	9 years	None.	38	2	Yes.	6 per cent.
Commercial Building and Loan Association	150	1,200	10 years	None.	15	3	Yes.	6 per cent.
California Mutual Savings Fund, Loan, and Building Association	60	444	9 years	None.	15	3	Yes.	*
Equitable Building and Loan Association	187	500	9 years	None.				*
Fidelity Building and Loan Association	255	2,605	9 years	None.	15	2	Yes.	4 per cent.
Franklin Building and Savings Association	134	1,422	6 years	1			Yes.	6 per cent.
Home Mutual Building and Loan Association	200	1,750	10 years	None.	27	3	Yes.	6 per cent.
Italian-Swiss Mutual Loan Association	175	1,725	10 years	None.	12		Yes.	8 per cent.
Mutual Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	224	2,199	9 years	None.	60	6	Yes.	6 per cent.
National Home and Loan Association	200	4,796	8 to 9 years		36		Yes.	*
Occidental Loan Association	179	3,629	9 years	None.	45	9	Yes.	*
Providence Building and Loan Association	76	1,350	9 years	None.	10		Yes.	*
Pacific Loan Association	192	4,582	9 years	None.	42	6	Yes.	*
San Francisco Mutual Loan Association	400	4,856½	10 years	None.	66	6	Yes.	8 per cent.
Security Loan Association	250	2,200	9 years	None.	2		Yes.	6 per cent.
Union Loan Association	285	4,111	9 years	None.	84	1	Yes.	*
Western Loan Association	182	2,718	9 years	None.	19	7	Yes.	*
Alameda Building and Loan Association	300	2,680	10 or 11 years	4	120	6	Yes.	6 per cent.
California Building and Loan Association	79	750	9 years	None.	3		Yes.	*
The Homestead Loan Association	200	2,400	9 years	None.	25	1	Yes.	6 per cent.
Benicia Building and Loan Association	120	1,070	9 years	None.	64	4	Yes.	4 per cent.
Colton Building and Loan Association			8 years				Yes.	*
Fresno Building and Loan Association	100	500	8 years	None.	12		Yes.	*
Metropolitan Loan Association	221	3,943		None.	21	10	Yes.	*
Southern California Loan Association	150	1,439	6 years	None.	12	3	Yes.	½ profits.
Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	184	1,272	9 years	None.	59	11	Yes.	6 per cent.
Union Building and Loan Association			8 years	None.				
Columbia Loan and Building Association	180	2,000	7 years	None.	17		Yes.	None.
East Side Building and Loan Association	38	227	8 years	None.			Yes.	6 per cent.
The National City Building and Loan Association	90	1,000	8 years	None.	4		Yes.	*
Napa Building and Loan Association	131	997	8½ years	None.	22	3	Yes.	4 per cent.
Orange Building and Loan Association	97	751	6 or 7 years	None.	10		Yes.	4 per cent.
Oroville Building and Loan Association								

Home Security Building and Loan Association	500	4,800	9 to 9½ years	4	111	3	Yes.	4 to 14 per cent.
Cosmopolitan Mutual Building and Loan Association	215	1,931	9 years	None.		6	Yes.	6 per cent.
West Oakland Mutual Loan Association	250	2,407	10 years	1	114	6	Yes.	8 per cent.
Pasadena Building and Loan Association	57	600					Yes.	6 per cent.
South Riverside Building and Loan Association	20	200	9 years	None.			Yes.	6 per cent.
Stockton Land, Loan, and Building Association	240	2,319	7 or 8 years	None.	14		*	*
San José Building and Loan Association	564	5,500	9 years	None.	36	1	Yes.	6 per cent.
Marin County Mutual, Building, and Loan Association	98	949	9 years	None.	18	7	Yes.	⅔ profits.
The Loan and Building Association of Santa Barbara	88	592	9 years	None.	12		Yes.	*
San Bernardino Building and Loan Association	211	500	8 years	None.	14	4	Yes.	½ profits.
Santa Ana Loan and Building Association	75	700	4½ years	None.			Yes.	Profits.
San Luis Building and Loan Association	150	1,000	8 years	None.	6		Yes.	¾ profits.
Sausalito Mutual Loan Association	49	780	6 years	None.	7		Yes.	*
San Diego Building and Loan Association	262	2,413	7 years	None.	30	7	Yes.	6 per cent.
San Diego Savings and Loan Association			5 years				No.	
The Pacific Beach Building and Loan Association	125	1,000	6 years	None.	1		Yes.	6 per cent.
Occidental Building and Loan Association	200	1,861	10 years	1	96	12	Yes.	*
Union Building and Loan Association	300	2,884	10 years	1	108	12	Yes.	7 per cent.
Germania Building and Loan Association	772	7,850	10 years	1	102	17	Yes.	¾ profits.
Mechanics Building and Loan Association								
Sacramento Building and Loan Association	368	6,471	10 years	1	118	9	Yes.	*
Visalia Building and Loan Association	97	1,000	7 years	None.	16	9	Yes.	None.
Woodland Building and Loan Association			6 years				Yes.	None.
Totals	10,080	109,373						

* Fixed by Directors.

TABLE N N.

III—Mortgages and Loans.

Name of Association.	Number of Loans Made.	Number of Shares Borrowed on.	Amount of Loans Made.	Rate of Interest Charged on Loans.	Average Rate of Premium Bid.	Loans on Gross or Net Plan.	Number of Mortgages Foreclosed.
Citizens Building and Loan Association	95	608	$121,600 00	7 per cent.	30 per cent.	Net.	None.
Commercial Building and Loan Association	12	100	19,600 00	7 per cent.	18 per ct. gross, 30 per ct. net.	Both.	None.
California Mutual Savings Fund, Loan, and Building	3	27	4,000 00	8 per cent.	10 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Equitable Building and Loan Association	32	860	171,810 00	6 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Fidelity Building and Loan Association	22	341	64,400 00	7 per cent.	15 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Franklin Building and Savings Association	50	1,000	287,800 00	9 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Home Mutual Building and Loan Association	25	200	39,650 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Italian-Swiss Mutual Loan Association	7	100	20,000 00	6 per cent.	16 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Mutual Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	50	457	88,350 00	8 per cent.	15 per cent.	Gross.	None.
National Home and Loan Association	30	1,158	194,000 00	7 per cent.	15 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Occidental Loan Association	64	700	221,900 00	7 per cent.	15 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Providence Building and Loan Association	6	87½	15,947 00	7 per cent.	15 per ct. net, 30 per ct. gross.	Both.	None.
Pacific Loan Association	51	1,500	308,500 00	7 per cent.	15 per cent.	Gross.	1
San Francisco Mutual Loan Association	160	1,065	213,075 00	6 per cent.	16 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Security Loan Association	2	74	14,800 00	7 per cent.	15 per ct. net, 30 per ct. gross.	Both.	None.
Union Loan Association	123	1,668	354,080 00	7 per cent.	12 per cent.	Gross.	3
Western Loan Association	43	700	115,000 00	7 per cent.	30 per cent.	Net.	None.
Alameda Building and Loan Association	287	843	169,124 75	8 per cent.	15 per ct. gross, 30 per ct. net.	Both.	3
California Building and Loan Association	None.	----------	----------	8 per cent.	12 per ct. net, 30 per ct. gross.	Both.	None.
Homestead Loan Association	66	280	55,660 00	7½ per cent.	30 per cent.	Net.	----------
Benicia Building and Loan Association	54	364	73,050 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Colton Building and Loan Association	3	12	2,400 00	12 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Fresno Building and Loan Association	6	19	3,800 00	8 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
Metropolitan Loan Association	47	647	114,250 00	9 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Southern California Loan Association	10	750	12,981 41	9 per cent.	13 3/10 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	63	225	25,268 83	8 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
Union Building and Loan Association	None.	----------	----------	9 per cent.	----------	Net.	----------
Columbia Loan and Building Association	34	321	64,200 00	8 per cent.	21 to 46 per ct.	Gross.	None.
East Side Building and Loan Association	1	7	1,032 00	9 per cent.	29 per cent.	Net.	None.
The National City Building and Loan Association	2	10	2,000 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.

Napa Building and Loan Association	9	102	15,150 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Orange Building and Loan Association	6	30	6,000 00	6 per cent.		Gross.	None.
Oroville Building and Loan Association							
Home Security Building and Loan Association	360	1,700	330,345 00	9 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Cosmopolitan Mutual Building and Loan Association	51	619½	124,100 00	8 per cent.	16½ per cent.	Gross.	None.
West Oakland Mutual Loan Association	337	887	177,501 10	6 per cent.	16 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Pasadena Building and Loan Association	5	28	5,600 00	7 per cent.	15 to 29 per ct.	Gross.	None.
South Riverside Building and Loan Association	2	20	3,600 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Stockton Land, Loan, and Building Association	24	314	40,627 98	6 per cent.		Gross.	None.
San José Building and Loan Association	127	1,004	180,380 00	6 per cent.	26 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Marin County Mutual Building and Loan Association	17	169	27,000 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
The Loan and Building Association of Santa Barbara	3	18	3,600 00	9 per cent.	5 to 7½ per ct.	Gross.	None.
San Bernardino Building and Loan Association	20	109	16,200 00	7½ per cent.	30 per cent.	Net.	None.
Santa Ana Loan and Building Association	10	214	3,850 00	7 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
San Luis Building and Loan Association	1	4	800 00	7 per cent.	25 per cent.	Both.	None.
Sausalito Mutual Loan Association	5	75	7,800 00	8 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
San Diego Building and Loan Association	79	402	45,030 00	10 per cent.	14 to 36 per ct.	Gross.	None.
San Diego Savings and Loan Association	17	90	18,000 00	8 per cent.	20 per cent.	Net.	None.
The Pacific Beach Building and Loan Association	1	6	1,200 00	8 per cent.	26½ per cent.	Net.	None.
Occidental Building and Loan Association	87	419	200,762 40	7 per cent.	None.	Gross.	None.
Union Building and Loan Association	130	597	203,054 00	8 per cent.	None.	None.	None.
Germania Building and Loan Association	297	1,485		10 per cent.	None.		2
Mechanics Building and Loan Association							
Sacramento Building and Loan Association	916	3,125	162,207 80	10 per cent.	None.	Gross.	2
Visalia Building and Loan Association	17	179	19,100 00	10 per cent.	20 per cent.	Gross.	None.
Woodland Building and Loan Association	27	40	18,064 50	10 per cent.			1
Total	3,896	25,760	$4,388,251 77				

TABLE O O.

IV—Assets and Liabilities.

Name of Association.	Assets.						
	Loans on Stock, Mortgages, and Other Security.	Dues, Fines, etc., Owed the Association.	Real Estate.	Cash on Hand.	Office Furniture, etc.	Other Assets.	Total Assets.
Citizens Building and Loan Association	$121,600 00	$201 00			$850 83		$122,651 83
Commercial Building and Loan Association	19,600 00	175 50			261 25		20,036 75
California Mutual Savings Fund, Loan, and Building Association	4,000 00	90 00		$1,621 55			5,711 55
Equitable Building and Loan Association	171,810 00	1,211 75		10,489 19	250 00		183,760 94
Franklin Building and Savings Association	249,400 00			1,206 55	50 00		250,656 55
Home Mutual Building and Loan Association	39,650 00	80 35			186 47	$6,814 00	39,984 96
Italian-Swiss Mutual Loan Association	20,000 00			4,125 51			24,125 51
Mutual Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	88,350 00			2,641 01	30 35		91,021 36
National Home and Loan Association	194,000 00	565 00				2,300 00	196,865 00
Occidental Loan Association	221,900 00	112 60					222,012 60
Providence Building and Loan Association	15,947 00			228 60	246 67		16,422 27
Pacific Loan Association	308,500 00	270 00				3,150 00	311,920 00
San Francisco Mutual Loan Association	213,075 00	498 30		10,921 44	200 00	888 00	225,582 74
Security Loan Association	14,800 00						14,800 00
Union Loan Association	354,080 00	780 00	$11,156 35		930 15	1,000 00	367,946 50
Western Loan Association	115,000 00	300 00					115,300 00
Alameda Building and Loan Association	169,124 75	1,185 80			193 67	100 42	170,604 64
California Building and Loan Association				2,300 00			2,300 00
Homestead Loan Association	55,660 00				299 35	43 00	56,002 35
Benicia Building and Loan Association	73,050 00	482 15		1,300 00			74,832 15
Colton Building and Loan Association	2,400 00			824 40		113 20	3,337 60
Fresno Building and Loan Association	3,800 00	140 00		89 45	177 60		4,207 05
Metropolitan Loan Association	114,250 00	3,477 68		4,885 00		2,570 32	125,183 00
Southern California Loan Association	12,981 41			1,741 34			14,722 75
Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association	25,268 83	87 00		1,076 40	242 75		26,674 98
Columbia Loan and Building Association	64,200 00			2,000 00	300 00		66,500 00
East Side Building and Loan Association	1,032 00	1,546 00		35 75	110 85	42,732 00	45,456 60
Napa Building and Loan Association	15,150 00			3,621 82			18,771 82
Home Security Building and Loan Association	330,345 00	2,524 90			986 67	1,292 60	335,149 17
Cosmopolitan Mutual Building and Loan Association	124,100 00	1,721 20	1,136 00	5,742 11	592 50		133,291 81
West Oakland Mutual Loan Association	177,501 10	630 80		98 27	656 00	1,408 66	180,294 83

Stockton Land, Loan, and Building Association	40,627 98			2,310 23			42,938 21
San José Building and Loan Association	180,380 00			2,303 10	670 00		183,353 10
Marin County Mutual Building and Loan Association	27,000 00	11 00			175 91		27,186 91
The Loan and Building Association of Santa Barbara	3,600 00			298 60		145 50	4,044 10
San Bernardino Building and Loan Association	16,200 00			213 50			16,413 50
Santa Ana Loan and Building Association	3,850 00	162 00		982 53		20 70	5,015 23
San Diego Building and Loan Association	45,030 00	1,574 52				1,961 46	48,565 98
Occidental Building and Loan Association	200,762 40	1,153 00	3,400 00	5,955 52	517 35	7,072 23	218,860 50
Union Building and Loan Association	203,054 00	657 18	6,049 04	1,460 90	607 50	6,553 03	218,381 65
Germania Building and Loan Association	145,974 47			2,373 75		9,472 00	157,820 22
Sacramento Building and Loan Association	162,207 80	2,770 22	2,760 07	8,315 01	300 00	1,265 50	177,618 60
Visalia Building and Loan Association	19,100 00	38 70		641 48			19,780 18
Woodland Building and Loan Association	18,064 50	1,493 19	753 20	44 02		865 64	21,220 55
Totals	$4,386,426 24	$23,939 84	$25,254 66	$79,847 03	$8,835 87	$83,022 40	$4,607,326 04

TABLE OO—Continued.

Name of Association.	Liabilities.				
	Overdraft.	Capital Stock.	Profits.	Other Liabilities.	Total Liabilities.
Citizens Building and Loan Association	$9,512 10	$93,501 00	$16,305 08	$3,333 65	$122,651 83
Commercial Building and Loan Association	5,605 61	10,896 00	789 99	2,745 15	20,036 75
California Mutual Savings Fund, Loan, and Building Association		3,594 00	299 55	1,818 00	5,711 55
Equitable Building and Loan Association		150,500 00	27,751 72	5,509 22	183,760 94
Franklin Building and Savings Association		250,656 55			250,656 55
Home Mutual Building and Loan Association	5,800 99	24,708 00	3,479 79	5,996 18	39,984 96
Italian-Swiss Mutual Loan Association		21,295 00	2,830 51		24,125 51
Mutual Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association		66,798 00	15,877 75	8,345 61	91,021 36
National Home and Loan Association	20,227 92	129,492 00	27,145 08	20,000 00	196,865 00
Occidental Loan Association	77,987 00	124,744 00	19,281 60		222,012 60
Providence Building and Loan Association	3,616 49	12,150 00	655 78		16,422 27
Pacific Loan Association	86,807 00	168,480 00	566 33		311,920 00
San Francisco Mutual Loan Association		174,605 00	50,977 74		225,582 74
Security Loan Association	12,600 00	2,200 00			14,800 00
Union Loan Association	66,759 79	219,808 99	70,377 72	11,000 00	367,946 50
Western Loan Association	57,700 00	47,352 00	4,944 00	5,304 00	115,300 00
Alameda Building and Loan Association	1,290 07	120,919 50	38,497 81	9,898 26	170,604 64
California Building and Loan Association		2,300 00			2,300 00
Homestead Loan Association	8,989 79	38,154 00	5,970 71	2,887 85	56,002 35
Benicia Building and Loan Association		52,226 00	22,606 15		74,832 15
Colton Building and Loan Association		2,500 00	532 60	305 00	3,337 60
Fresno Building and Loan Association		4,000 00	160 00	47 05	4,207 05
Metropolitan Loan Association		47,084 44	16,819 01	61,279 55	125,183 00
Southern California Loan Association		12,344 00	2,378 75		14,722 75
Savings Fund, Building, and Loan Association		18,180 00	7,099 89	1,395 09	26,674 98
Columbia Loan and Building Association		64,122 87	1,377 13	1,000 00	66,500 00
East Side Building and Loan Association		45,400 00	56 60		45,456 60
Napa Building and Loan Association		15,691 00	3,080 82		18,771 82
Home Security Building and Loan Association	10,307 24	214,968 00	104,397 70	5,476 23	335,149 17
Cosmopolitan Mutual Building and Loan Association		100,000 00	19,934 89	13,356 92	133,291 81
West Oakland Mutual Loan Association		141,150 14	39,144 69		180,294 83
Stockton Land, Loan, and Building Association		27,773 00	11,156 21	4,009 00	42,938 21
San José Building and Loan Association		123,953 00	55,124 40	4,275 70	183,353 10
Marin County Mutual Building and Loan Association	11,557 07	13,284 00	1,235 84	1,110 00	27,186 91
The Loan and Building Association of Santa Barbara		3,703 00	332 30	8 80	4,044 10
San Bernardino Building and Loan Association		11,880 00	4,533 50		16,413 50

Santa Ana Loan and Building Association		4,850 00	157 23	8 00	5,015 23
San Diego Building and Loan Association		40,000 00	8,565 98		48,565 98
Occidental Building and Loan Association		200,000 00	15,000 00	3,860 50	218,860 50
Union Building and Loan Association		180,000 00	38,381 65		218,381 65
Germania Building and Loan Association		128,243 06	29,577 16		157,820 22
Sacramento Building and Loan Association		100,000 00	77,618 60		177,618 60
Visalia Building and Loan Association		16,000 00	3,780 18		19,780 18
Woodland Building and Loan Association	3,186 09	16,166 00	1,868 46		21,220 55
Totals	$381,947 16	$3,245,671 55	$806,737 57	$172,969 76	$4,607,326 04

CHAPTER II.

COÖPERATIVE FARMING.

Coöperative farming, in its experimental stage, has met with glowing success in California. Such schemes have often been introduced, from time to time, as an experiment to elevate and place the wage classes on a higher plane of social comfort, but met with ill success. The wage classes are fast becoming cognizant of that old, but true, adage, "A penny saved is a penny earned." They are taking care of the dimes, leaving the dollars to take care of themselves. Organization has done a great deal in educating them to look beyond their present necessities, to lay by in the balmy days of prosperity what will cheer the domestic circle and add vigor to hope in times of adversity. Building and loan associations have done much towards solving the great industrial problem. Coöperative farming is helping in the same direction.

In 1881 Mr. Andrea Sbarboro, the Secretary of several mutual loan associations, seeing the great success attained in this State by coöperative banking, through the mutual loan associations, after much thought, conceived the idea that like success should be achieved by coöperative farming. He consulted some of his friends, whom he found to favor his plans, and finally organized the Italian-Swiss Agricultural Colony, and adopted the following by-laws, which are on the same principle as those of building and loan associations, with the difference that instead of loaning money out to the members, it is employed in purchasing large tracts of land and improving them, for account of all the members concerned.

HOW THE ASSOCIATION WAS FORMED.

One hundred members joined the association, taking fifteen hundred shares of stock, upon which was paid $1 per share per month, making the monthly receipts $1,500. As soon as $10,000 was in the treasury a committee was appointed to select a tract of land adapted to the purposes of the colony. The committee traversed the whole State, examined some fifty pieces of property, and finally selected a tract of fifteen hundred acres bordering on the Russian River, four miles south of Cloverdale, Sonoma County, and on the line of the San Francisco and North Pacific Coast Railroad, where there was a station named Asti. The price paid was $25,000, of which amount $10,000 was paid in cash, and a mortgage given for the balance of $15,000. A superintendent was appointed and work commenced in earnest; $1,000 a month was used in improving the land, and $500 a month set aside as a sinking fund with which to pay off the mortgage. At the end of five years, when all the shares issued had been paid up in full, at the rate of $60 each, or $90,000 in all, the colony had paid off its mortgage and had under cultivation five hundred acres of choice varieties of foreign grapevines, one hundred acres of fruit trees, two hundred acres in corn, grain, potatoes, vegetables, etc. At this time the corporation was entirely free from debt, and owned as fine a tract of land, of its size, as there was in the State. The improvement of the land was continued, and in 1887 one of the finest concrete wineries in the State was built by the colony. In order to pay for the same, without going in debt, seven hundred and fifty shares of new stock were issued, which were all readily taken by the members themselves, in proportion to the number of shares which they owned. In the season of 1887 the colony made one hundred

and thirty thousand gallons of wine. The season of 1888 will probably produce over a thousand tons of grapes and one hundred tons of fruit. When all the vines and fruit trees now set out come into full bearing, it is expected that the yearly produce will be over four thousand tons of grapes and one thousand tons of choice fruit. In a few years more the property of the colony will have a value of over $1,000,000. One hundred acres of land have been set aside near the railroad depot for a town site. Each member, besides being interested in the whole tract, will be allotted a town lot, which may in time become very valuable property. The great success obtained by the colony is due to its honest and efficient management. The Board of Directors take a pride in the institution, and gratuitously devote a great deal of their valuable time to its affairs. Thus it will be seen that coöperative farming, the great idea of Horace Greeley, can be made successful.

Similar attempts have failed on account of bad management. Most of the schemes have been organized by persons interested in the sale of tracts of land, at three or four times the actual value, thus discounting the future for many years to come. But if a number of honest persons, with honest intentions, join together, pay into a general fund so much a month, and, as soon as a respectable sum is accumulated, purchase a tract of land at, or under if possible, its actual value, then appoint competent persons to manage the institution, coöperative farming, as well as coöperative banking, stores, and manufactories, may be made as successful as the Italian-Swiss Agricultural Colony.

OBJECTS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

The objects of the association are set forth in the following articles taken from the laws made by the members, which give an idea of how to form a similar one:

NAME AND OBJECT.

This association shall be known as the Italian-Swiss Agricultural Association, and its objects shall be to buy and sell agricultural land for colonial and other purposes, or cultivate the same, and to manufacture, buy, and sell wines and spirits, to deal in the products of the said lands, and all matters and things appertaining to the purposes herein specified. Its principal office shall be in the City and County of San Francisco.

ARTICLE II.—CAPITAL—SHARES.

The capital is established at $300,000, divided into five thousand shares, of the par value of $60 per share; and each and every shareholder, for each and every share of stock he or she may take, shall pay the sum of $1 in gold coin, on the first Tuesday in each and every month, to the Secretary, for the period of sixty months—unless the association should be remunerative previously—in which event the Board may order the cessation of the payments. The shares may be issued in series and at different periods, as may be ordered by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERS.

SECTION 1. Each member shall be entitled to a certificate for the number of shares of stock held by him or her, which shall not be less than five nor more than fifty, to be issued in the name of and under the seal of this association, signed by the President and attested by the Secretary.

SEC. 2. Each person, upon receiving a certificate of stock to which he or she may be entitled, shall subscribe to an agreement to comply with and obey all the by-laws and rules of this association.

SEC. 3. Transfers of stock can only be made upon the books of the association by assignment in person or by attorney, on the payment of 10 cents per share, and such transferee shall become a member of the association, and shall be subject to the rules and regulations thereof; but no shareholder shall be entitled to more than one vote.

ARTICLE IV.—FINES.

Any stockholder who shall neglect or refuse to pay his or her monthly installments shall pay a fine of 10 per cent per month upon the amount of his or her indebtedness on his or her stock. This fine shall be charged by the Secretary, and be paid with the delin-

quent monthly dues; and in case any shareholder shall neglect or refuse to pay his or her monthly dues or fines for the space of six months, the Treasurer shall demand a return of the certificate of stock, and shall tender such stockholder the amount actually paid in, deducting all fines and forfeitures that may be charged against him or her, and from that time he or she shall cease to be a member of this association; and the shares held by such defaulting member shall revert to the association, and may be sold by the Board of Directors, as they may deem advisable, for the interest of the association, but in no case at less rate than the actual amount paid in for each share.

CHAPTER III.

STANFORD ON COÖPERATION.

The great advantage to labor arising out of coöperative effort has been apparent to me for many years. From my earliest acquaintance with the science of political economy, it has been evident to my mind that capital was the product of labor, and that, therefore, in its best analysis there could be no natural conflict between capital and labor, because there could be no antagonism between cause and effect—between effort and the result of effort; and, since capital is the product of labor, there could be no conflict between labor and its product. Keeping this fundamental principle in view, it is obvious that the seeming antagonism between capital and labor is the result of deceptive appearance. I have always been fully persuaded that, through coöperation, labor could become its own employer. The investment and employment of capital is dependent entirely upon the product of the labor employed by it. All active capital is merely capital employing labor. It is out of the product of labor so employed that capital is rewarded. Capital invested in a manner not to require the employment of labor is dead or idle capital. Money invested in land, where the land is not cultivated, or in buildings which are untenanted, is as idle as if the gold and silver invested in them had never been mined; but all capital employed in manufactures, in agriculture, in commerce, in arts, in transportation, is active capital, and it is sustained and supported in activity wholly out of the result of the labor it employs. Labor and capital thus associated, then, create all the reward which inures to them.

All things have value in proportion to their susceptibility of becoming valuable by the addition of labor. The ore in the mine has value only because of its capability of being converted by the application of labor, under the direction of enterprise, into things useful to man. Land is valuable only in proportion as it is capable of yielding to the labor expended upon it a return in the way of products adapted to supply human wants. The value of everything in the way of raw or unwrought material depends entirely upon its susceptibility of being converted into property, and the conversion of the original raw materials into property, in the way of wares, merchandise, fabrics, or works of art, resides wholly in their capability, under the manipulation of labor, of being so converted.

WEALTH THE PRODUCT OF LABOR.

Thus again we find the wealth of the world to be in the product of labor. Labor is the creator of capital, and capital is in the nature of a stored up force. It is like the balance wheel of an engine, which has no motion that has not been imparted to it, but is a reservoir of force which will perpetuate the motion of the machinery after the propelling power has ceased. A man takes a few thousand dollars of capital, builds a work-

shop, buys raw material advantageously, and engages a hundred workmen to manufacture boots and shoes. This is the foundation of enterprise. The employer of labor is a benefactor. The great majority of mankind do not originate employments for themselves. They either have not the disposition or the ability to so originate and direct their own employment. Whatever may be the fault, it is true that the majority of mankind are employed by the minority.

Capital directed by intelligent enterprise is a vast benefactor to man. The man who, through others, makes to grow two blades of grass where but one grew before, is a benefactor to mankind in the largest sense; but suppose that each of the one hundred workmen employed produce, in excess of his wages, the value of $1 per day. One dollar a day for each, aggregated, gives $100 a day to the employer. The profit to the employer, then, is $100 per day. In the aggregate the one hundred men employed, by associating their effort and their credit, and possibly their capital, could command a sufficiency of that reserve force which we call capital to build the shop and purchase the material with which to start business. If they do not possess the capital in the aggregate, I am fully pursuaded that one hundred industrious, sober, skillful mechanics, agreeing to combine their labor, industry, and intelligence, would possess sufficient credit to command the capital necessary to lay the foundation of enterprise. As between this outline of coöperation and the old system of permitting labor to be hired and directed by one who, in the prosecution of beneficial enterprise, originates employment for these one hundred men, there is a difference in favor of coöperation of $100 a day, that amount being the premium which the one hundred men used in this illustration would pay to some one else for originating their employment and directing their skill.

It should be borne in mind that the labor employed not only creates its own wages, but creates the premium which the enterprising proprietor receives for originating the employment. Viewed from this standpoint there is a sense in which the labor so coöperating is hiring an employer—that is, it is paying a premium to enterprise to originate and direct its employment.

VALUE OF COÖPERATION.

Capital is paramount, and labor subordinate, only because labor consents to that form of organization in our industries which produces that result. The value of coöperative effort has had many practical illustrations, some of which have come under my observation. In the early history of mining in California, some of the largest and most profitable mining enterprises were projected and carried on by association alone. A large number of men possessed of productive capacity, but without capital, combined into coöperative relation an energy and ability equal to the accomplishment of the work in hand. The work to be done required so many days of labor. By their association they contributed to a common fund, as it were, a laboring capacity equal to the work to be accomplished. If these enterprises had been projected by a single capitalist, the first step would have been to engage an amount of labor necessary to the accomplishment of the work—that is, to purchase the labor. Instead, therefore, of selling the labor to a single far-sighted and enterprising employer, these men contributed by subscription the amount of labor required to be performed. The work accomplished in this way gave all the result attained to the labor expended upon it.

Undertakings of great magnitude are more profitable than the more inconsiderable enterprises, because the greater undertakings require greater

aggregations of capital, and the possession of large capital is enjoyed but by few. There is no undertaking open to capital, however great the amount involved, that is not accessible to a certain amount of labor voluntarily associated and intelligently directing its own effort. When an individual employs one hundred or one thousand men in the manufacture of wares, in the construction of buildings, or in the prosecution of any kind of enterprise, he has in fact formed an association of labor. The efforts of the men employed are associated in the accomplishment of any desired result, and it is out of the result of such effort that all the wages and all the premium to the employer are to be produced.

LABOR FROM A CAPITAL STANDPOINT.

The employers of labor are the greatest benefactors to mankind. They promote industry; they foster a spirit of enterprise; they conceive all the great plans to which the possibilities of civilization invite them; and the association of laboring men into coöperative relation, which in a large measure can take the place of the employer class, must therefore of necessity be ennobling.

There is a mischievous belief among laboring people that enterprises with large backing of capital offer a better guaranty of employment. This is not true. The only guaranty of employment is its profitableness. Capital cannot afford continued employment to labor at a loss. Unless the product of the labor yields a sufficient return out of which wages may be paid, and the enterprise and skill of the employer properly rewarded, and the use of the capital also rewarded, the enterprise will of necessity be abandoned. In short, coöperative association for the prosecution of any undertaking stands in exactly the same relation—possesses precisely the same chances of success, if the effort is as intelligently directed, as do the same kind of enterprises projected by individuals and sustained by capital.

As between the two great plans, the coöperation of labor, or the employment of labor by itself, and the hiring of labor for wages, or employment of labor by enterprise, intelligence, and capital, the latter has no advantage over the former in the way of a guaranty as against loss. The product of labor alone insures its employment, because employment of labor cannot continue beyond the point at which it is profitable. In the aggregate, labor produces all the money paid back to it in wages, and all the margin of profit which inures to the employer. It is preëminently right and just that the employers of labor, and capital employed in producing activity, should be rewarded. Labor owes a continuing debt of gratitude to the enterprise and intelligence of the employer class. The thought, attention, intelligence, and skill necessary to originate profitable labor, is in fact a separate department of human activity.

TIME ARRIVED FOR COÖPERATION.

In past times, when labor was less intelligent than now, when the opportunities for education among workingmen were more restricted and limited than at present, an intelligent employer class originating and directing labor was indispensable. What I believe is, the time has come when the laboring men can perform for themselves the office of becoming their own employers; that the employer class is less indispensable in the modern organization of industries, because the laboring men themselves possess sufficient intelligence to organize into coöperative relation and enjoy the entire benefits of their own labor. Whenever labor is sufficiently intelli-

gent to do this, it should not wait patiently for its own employment by capital and enterprise, because whoever is competent to furnish himself employment, and therefore receive the full result of his own effort and hires out his time, is thereby rendering a voluntary servitude to capital, and every man possessed of industrial capacity is in possession of capital, for it is out of that industrial capacity that capital is sustained in activity.

Sufficient productive capacity may be associated for the prosecution of almost any enterprise, however great its magnitude, because, as we have already seen, the employment of labor by capital is in a sense a form of associating labor in the prosecution of undertaking, the difference being that voluntary association of labor into coöperative relation secures to itself both the wages and the premium which, under the other form of industrial organization, would be paid to the enterprise directing it and to the capital giving it employment. Capital appears to have an ascendancy over labor, and so long as our industries are organized upon the divisions of employer and employé, so long will capital retain that relation, but associated labor would at once become its own master.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH.

The political economists and the communists have much to say concerning the distribution of wealth. They are constantly declaring that while our country presents the spectacle of a government wherein there is an equal distribution of political power, there is a great disparity of condition with reference to the possession of wealth. Many writers upon the science of political economy have declared that it is the duty of a nation first to encourage the creation of wealth; and second, to direct and control its distribution. All such theories are delusive. The production of wealth is the result of agreement between labor and capital, between employer and employed. Its distribution, therefore, will follow the law of its creation, or great injustice will be done. The individual who comes to you claiming that, because you have more than himself, you should divide a part of it with him, is claiming a percentage in your manhood, a share in your productive capacity. He is denying to you the right to produce, either with your own labor, as you have a right to do, or through the employment of the labors of others, which you have an equal right to do, more than a bare substance for yourself. The only distribution of wealth which is the product of labor, which will be honest, will come through a more equal distribution of the productive capacity of men, and the coöperative principle leads directly to this consummation.

All legislative experiments in the way of making forcible distribution of the wealth produced in any country have failed. Their first effect has been to destroy wealth, to destroy productive industries, to paralyze enterprise, and to inflict upon labor the greatest calamities it has ever encountered. So long as labor, which is sufficiently intelligent to originate its own employment, consents to a voluntary servitude of paying a premium to those who do originate its employments, so long will the many remain comparatively poor. As at present organized, the industries of the world are under the direction of employers. A man may possess industry and productive capacity and skill, but he must first make an agreement with an employer before he can make these qualities valuable to himself.

INTELLIGENT LABOR ABLE TO TAKE CARE OF ITSELF.

When the lord of the vineyard, at the eleventh hour of the day, found the idlers in the market place, and questioned them concerning the reason

of their idleness, the reply was: "Because no man hath hired us." They were waiting, just as a very large percentage of the laboring world has waited, for some one else to open avenues of employment. But aggregated into coöperative relation, intelligent, educated labor possesses the capacity for the accomplishment of any undertaking or enterprise, and need not wait for an individual called an employer to associate its effort, and direct and control the industry out of which it earns wages and pays premium to capital. Under the present organization of our industrial system, it is idle to say that the men in the market place could have found something to do. It is equally idle to say that there was a conflict between their interest and those of the lord of the vineyard who gave them employment. He was in that instance their benefactor. But intelligent labor need not wait until some man has hired it. It can by coöperation employ itself. There are mills and factories and workshops employing large numbers of skilled hands, wherein the capital employed is far less than the aggregate of money owned and controlled by the operatives, and yet the operatives by their own voluntary consent are dependent for employment entirely upon the thought, the intelligence, and the enterprise of an employer. It cannot be denied that they receive a rate of wages calculated upon the basis of a productive industry which will create the wages paid to them, and also create a profit to the capital and enterprise employing them. There is no natural conflict between capital and labor even in this relation. There is no conflict between the capital invested in the plant of a manufactory, and the raw material upon which the labor is expended, on the one side, and the labor itself on the other, because the plant and material are themselves the product of labor. The real conflict, if any exists, is between the two industrial systems. Labor desires that the premium paid for its employment shall be small. If it could succeed in eliminating that premium altogether, it will leave no encouragement to the employer class, and, as we have already seen, under the present system the employer class is not only indispensable, but is a great benefactor. If, however, there were no profit whatever to the employer class, then practical coöperation would be realized.

LABOR ITS OWN EMPLOYER.

When, therefore, men ask for higher wages, and demand that the margin of profit to the employer shall be less, they are really demanding a nearer approach to the realization of coöperation. The country blacksmith who employs no journeyman is never conscious of any conflict between the capital invested in his anvil, hammer, and bellows, and the labor he performs with them, because, in fact, there is none. If he takes in a partner, and the two join their labor into coöperative relation, there is still no point at which a conflict may arise between the money invested in the tools and the labor which is performed with them; and if, further in pursuance of the principle of coöperation, he takes in five or six partners, there is still complete absence of all conflict between labor and capital. But if he, being a single proprietor, employs three or four journeymen, and out of the product of their labor pays them wages, and, as a reward for giving them employment and directing their labor, retains to himself the premium, which they, in fact, also create, and which justly belongs to him, the line of difference between the wages and the premium may become a disputed one; but it should be clearly perceived that the dispute is not between capital and labor, but between the partial and actual realization of coöperation. The partnership relation was an actual realization of coöperation; the

employed relation is a partial realization of coöperative effort. As intelligence has increased and been more widely diffused among men, greater discontent has been observable, and men say the conflict between capital and labor is intensifying, when the real truth is, that by the increase of intelligence men are becoming more nearly capable of coöperation. In a still higher state of intelligence this premium will be eliminated altogether, because labor can and will become its own employer through coöperative association.

BENEFITS TO CHARACTER.

In addition to the many advantages which coöperation confers upon the material prosperity of the laboring classes, there are great and significant benefits to ensue to the character of men. The employé is regarded by the employer merely in the light of his value as an operative. His productive capacity alone is taken into account. His character for honesty, truthfulness, good moral habits, are largely disregarded unless they interfere with the extent and quality of his services. But when men are about to enter partnership in the way of coöperation, the whole range of character comes under careful scrutiny. Each individual member of a coöperative society, being the employer of his own labor, works with that interest which is inseparable from the new position he enjoys. Each has an interest in the other; each is interested in the other's health, in his sobriety, in his intelligence, in his general competency, and each is a guard upon the other's conduct. There would be no idling in a coöperative workshop. Each workman, being an employer, has a spur to his own industry, and also has a pecuniary reason for being watchful of the industry of his fellow workmen.

The character of men invariably arises with the assumption of higher responsibilities, and with the accession of men to the higher plane of becoming their own employers, there is to be a corresponding accession of more ambitious and interested activity and higher character. The bill I have introduced in the Senate of the United States, if it should become a law, in addition to the opportunity it would afford for the formation of coöperative societies, would do much to attract attention to the value of the coöperative principle upon which our industrial systems should be founded. It will be a governmental attestation of the value of the coöperative principle, which alone can eliminate what has been called the conflict between capital and labor.

INFLUENCE ON WAGES.

There are still higher considerations connecting themselves with this great subject. Take, for instance, the influence of coöperation upon the rate of wages to the employed class. In a coöperative association conducting a business, and dividing the entire proceeds of the business, the dividends so created would exceed the ordinary rate of wages. The best mechanics and the best laborers would, therefore, seek to acquire a position in a coöperative association. The reward of their labor being greater by coöperation, the employer would have to offer additional inducement to labor to remain in its employ, because the superior attractiveness of the coöperative plan would incite them to form societies of this character, and employ their own labor. It would, therefore, have a direct tendency to raise the rate of wages for all labor—or, in other words, to narrow the margin between the amount paid for labor and its gross product. Its effects expand in various

directions by contemplation. There would be a greater consumption of labor, because of the greater prosperity of men in coöperative relation.

All men labor to gratify their wants. Civilization means simply multiplicity of want, and the wants of men are limited only by their intellectual capacity to perceive them. As the mind grows and expands it perceives new and varied wants. You cannot have failed to notice that in proportion as men are able to gratify the higher tastes, their dwellings begin to show the improvement in their condition. They have better carpets, musical instruments, pictures, and books; comforts, and even elegancies, appear with the ability of men to purchase them. All these things are the result of labor. If there are more men able to own and enjoy them, there is a greater demand for labor in their production. So the demand for labor increases continually with the growth of civilized conceptions.

ADVANCE IN COMFORTS AND KNOWLEDGE.

Every improvement in the method of production brings some article of comfort or elegance within the reach of a larger number of people, and makes a greater demand for labor in its production, and at this point the interdependence of all men comes into view. A man may own a piece of land, but he is dependent upon the labor of others for the instruments with which to till it. The owner of a piece of land who has nothing but his hands with which to cultivate the soil is powerless to make it productive. Take the most primitive agricultural implement, a spade. When his hands are supplemented and aided by a spade, he may stir the ground and plant something. This he could not do were his hands not supplemented with tools, and these tools, you will observe, are the product of the labor of others. A spade is a very simple garden implement, but its history would be the history of civilization—a history of all the progress that has been made in the mechanical arts. From the mining of the ore through its melting, its conversion into steel, its manufacture into the form of an agricultural implement, there are many processes, and these processes represent the advancement of thought and skill in the mechanical world.

But the man I have supposed to own the land is powerless without the assistance of others. He cannot make a movement in the way of tilling his land without setting some one else to work to manufacture implements with which that tillage shall be done.

In every branch of human thought, every other department of activity and industry is called into requisition. The musician who composes music must express it upon a musical instrument—a piano or violin—and the instrument is the result of mechanical skill. As that skill advances, new expressions become possible, and hence the science of music is constantly promoted by reason of the improvement in the mechanical construction of musical instruments. The astronomer must use mathematical instruments. The observatory of the astronomer is called into requisition, and with it all the mechanical arts made use of in its construction, from the lense of the telescope to the stone in the foundation of the building. Taken as a whole, society is a grand coöperative association. As a whole, it is a unit, and this unit is divided into departments or branches of mechanical activity and scientific inquiry, and these are mutually dependent upon each other.

DEMAND FOR LABOR UNLIMITED.

The demand for the product of labor is unlimited. There can be no such thing as overproduction, so long as there remains a single human

being with wants to supply. I say the demand for labor is unlimited, because the capacity of the human mind to conceive new wants is unlimited. With every advancement in civilization there is a corresponding enlargement of the range of wants. Every year introduces something into the wants of man which requires activity in a new field of labor to supply. The earth, the source from which all wants are supplied, is an inexhaustible mine. We have, then, the unlimited advancement and extension and multiplicity of human want, and we have an unlimited source from which those wants may be supplied. The condition of labor rises with the advancement of civilization, because with multiplicity of wants the demand for labor increases, and wants advance in proportion as they may be supplied.

The human mind ceases to demand things that are impossible of gratification. But with the possibility of supplying wants they come into existence, and with them new fields of activity for human labor are opened. It is for this reason that labor-aiding machinery is a continued blessing to labor. In fact, the difference between the civilized and uncivilized man is a difference of the extent to which the hand of man has been supplemented by tools and implements. The Indian on the plains of Nevada, with his unaided hand, presents no evidence of civilized capacity or productive power. With him the primitive problem of sustaining existence has not been solved. His hand is not supplemented by tools and implements, and his unaided hand finds constant employment in obtaining the mere necessaries of physical existence. It is therefore impossible for him to enter any higher realm.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE UNCULTIVATED AND CIVILIZED.

The use of tools and implements which eventually expand and broaden and multiply into the most complex labor-aiding machinery, is the point of departure between barbarism and civilization. As soon as uncivilized man perceives the value of an ax with which to cut down the trees of the forest, he finds eventually the value of a saw. He learns to propel this saw with steam or water power, and thus his hand is aided. He can now do something more than sustain mere physical existence. Some of the intellectual wants of his nature may now be supplied, and with the intellectual activity necessary to the manufacture of an ax, or a saw, or a spade, he has acquired more intellectual force and power, and this is inseparable from the acquirement of diversified wants. His capacity to perceive new wants has been enlarged, and as soon as a want is perceived or felt, effort will be made to supply it.

The uncivilized man, like the Indian of the plains, has never felt higher wants. When his physical wants are gratified, he falls into a condition of sloth and indolence, if indeed he has time for indolence, for in a barbarous condition, with the hands unaided by implements, it requires constant effort, diligence, and industry to obtain the means of supporting mere physical existence. It therefore follows that every discovery in economic science which makes the production of things useful to man cheaper, and every new want that is felt by man in his progress toward higher civilization, enlarges the field of labor.

Coöperation will add new energy to civilized life, because it will increase the prosperity of laboring men, and enlarge in every respect the scope of their lives. The capacity to perceive a diversity of wants, the power of the mind to feel and acquire new wants, being unlimited, and the things necessary to their gratification being produced alone by labor, the demand

for labor is limitless, and that demand will increase in the proportion as men have capacity to perceive a greater diversity of want. The untaught barbarian, notwithstanding the effort required of him to maintain physical existence, consumes but little labor. Civilized man is a vast consumer of labor. Every article of furniture in his house, the house itself, the garden, the grounds, the books, the papers, and the musical instruments, are all the result of labor, and each civilized man is therefore consuming in his lifetime the result of a labor equal to the productive capacity of many hundreds of men, whose hands are unaided by labor-aiding machinery.

COÖPERATION MEANS PROGRESS.

The introduction of the coöperative principle into the industrial systems of our country means a general advance in the conditions of all classes. It means the awakening in the minds of a greater number of people of the complex wants of civilization, and will bring within the reach of all increased means of their gratification.

[At this point the reporter directed the Senator's attention to the theory advanced by certain writers on the science of political economy concerning the increase of poverty with the advancement of civilization. The question was propounded in the following general form:

"It has been contended, Senator, that the multiplicity of civilized wants places a strain upon certain classes among civilized men who have not sufficient intellectual capacity to keep pace with the civilization which surrounds them, and that they are therefore relegated to a condition of poverty which gives great emphasis to the disparity of condition between the rich and the poor, that in short, civilization presents the strong lights and shadows of great luxury and abject poverty."

To this the Senator replied substantially as follows:]

That conclusion grows out of our lack of observation of the same phenomena among uncivilized men. In a state of barbarism there is an utter absence of all unselfish helpfulness. The strong prey upon the weak. There is a greater disparity of condition between the hunter who is able to pursue the chase, and the indigent, aged, and infirm, than between the rich and the poor in civilized life, and for reasons which have already been alluded to; that is, we have found that the point of departure, the very line of separation which leaves barbarism on one side and introduces civilization on the other, is at that point where the hand of man is supplemented by labor-aiding machinery, tools, and implements. We have found that with the introduction of labor-aiding machinery life is enlarged, its possibilities widened and expanded. The primitive problem of maintaining physical existence being solved, the intellectual and spiritual wants of man may be ministered unto.

CAPACITY OF EDUCATED LABOR.

When man, through the assistance of labor-aiding machinery, may be able to produce in his lifetime an amount sufficient to maintain the physical existence of a hundred men, then he has a margin of capacity to supply his intellectual, esthetic, and spiritual wants in excess of the demand made upon him to maintain his physical existence equal to that which would maintain the physical existence of ninety-nine men. Out of this surplus he is at liberty to conceive new wants, because the means to gratify them are within his reach. Now, among the natural wants of man is the desire to see those around him happy. In a state of barbarism the demand made upon the energy of one whose hand is not supplemented by imple-

ments is such as to confine him to the solution of the problem of his own existence. He has no surplus capacity which he may generously devote to the assistance of others. His own existence is at all times precarious. He does not add to the productive capacity of the soil by tillage. He subsists, for example, upon roots and berries which are allowed to grow, and his method of treating this natural food is such as to reduce its production year by year. For meat he subsists upon the animals of the forest, chiefly animals of the cervine species, and it is a fact of universal observation that the barbarian slays the game at such time as to reduce their numbers. Barbarism, then, adopts and pursues methods of subsistence which constantly diminish the capacity of the earth to sustain human life. Civilized methods constantly increase the capacity of the earth to produce things necessary to man.

Improved methods of cultivation may render a single acre capable of producing an amount of human food equal to that produced by twenty acres in the past. The Malthusian theory of population, with which every student of political economy is familiar, predicted a limitation upon the numbers of the race by assuming a ratio of increase between the food product and the increase of population. It contended that population increased in a geometrical ratio, while the food product increased only in an arithmetical ratio, and that, therefore, the capacity of the earth to produce food would not keep pace with the increase of population. This theory of population advanced by Malthus failed, because he did not make allowance for the great progress which has been made in inventions, nor for the improved methods of cultivation which civilization has introduced.

The real truth is that the capacity of the people of the earth to produce food is much greater in proportion to their numbers than during the time of Malthus. Take an example which is very near at home. The agricultural population of California does not exceed one hundred thousand people. There are not in excess of twenty thousand adults engaged in agricultural pursuits in California, and yet these twenty thousand men produce an annual export surplus equal to from one million to twelve and thirteen hundred thousand tons per annum. One million tons of wheat per annum will furnish breadstuff for ten millions of people. Here, then, in California twenty thousand people, by the assistance of labor-aiding machinery, are producing in a single year bread sufficient to feed ten millions of people a whole year. Right under our own observation, then, twenty thousand men produce in a single year bread enough to feed five hundred times their own number. In a state of barbarism, or even in the more primitive stages of civilization, this result would have been impossible.

In fact, in a state of barbarism, the individual with his bare hands and possibly a few rude implements of agriculture or hunting equipments, is barely able to support himself, and minister to his own physical wants. Conditions in a state of barbarism may appear to be more nearly equalized to the superficial observation, because all are on the dead level of abject poverty, below the line of which there is submergence or actual starvation.

LIMITATION OF MAN'S WANTS.

I have already said that the wants of men are limited only by their intellectual capacity to perceive them. Let me add to that a most obvious fact; with the capacity to perceive wants, the power to find the means of their gratification is also very greatly increased. In low conditions of civilization the wants are few and the productive capacity correspondingly

low. In a high civilization wants are multiplied, and become more complex, and the capacity of man to supply them is augmented even in a much greater ratio than the capacity to perceive them. In stages of civilized development where the wants are very few, and the habits of life very simple, the use of labor-aiding machinery is also very limited; but with the expansion of the mind under civilizing influence, the inventive genius rises, and while new wants have birth in mind, still greater capacities for producing the things required to gratify these wants are also engendered.

When you meet with a man who is poorly clad, poorly fed, living in a state of poverty, you are always beset with the painful reflection that the unused portions of the earth would offer a broad field for the application of that man's productive capacity which would yield him and his family an abundance. When you see a man without employment, and reflect that but a small area of the earth, from which all the wants of man are supplied, is under cultivation, and, therefore, but a very small proportion of the earth yielding its abundance to supply the wants of men, the contemplation is necessarily saddening. The fault is with the organization of our industrial systems. The individual so circumstanced belongs to the class of people who wait the action of an employer, instead of originating employments for themselves.

Now, the employer class originates employments only for the gratification of its own wants. The hirer of labor uses other men in the employed relation only to the extent that his own wants demand. Those, therefore, who, having productive capacity, remain in poverty, belong to the class who constitute the surplus over and above the numbers required to satisfy by the product of their labor the wants of the employer class. The numbers belonging to this surplus class would be constantly diminished, and would eventually disappear under the operation of the coöperative principle.

COÖPERATION WOULD IMPROVE CONDITIONS.

In the first place, coöperation would so improve the condition of the working men engaged in it, that their own wants would be multiplied, and a greater demand for labor would ensue; and, in the second place, too much importance cannot be attached to the fact that no man can do anything unless he has first received a preparatory education. This is just as indispensable in an employer of labor as it is in any other department of human activity. The number of employers of men will necessarily be limited to the number who have the capacity to accomplish profitable results through others. Coöperation would be a preparatory school qualifying men, not only to direct their own energies, but to direct the labor and skill of others.

Let us illustrate this plainly and simply. Suppose that to-day, for every one hundred men engaged in manual labor, there is but one employer who is originating employment for the other ninety-nine. This one individual, it may safely be presumed, is the only one among the one hundred who is qualified to successfully direct to a profitable issue the productive capacity, the skill, and the industry of the others. Now, suppose that twenty out of these one hundred form a coöperative association, and thereby become the employers of their own labor. Each begins by first directing his own. Having mastered this problem each is now prepared to take the next step, and to become the employer of others. Here, then, a coöperative association becomes a school in which employers are educated, and eventually, instead of one man in one hundred having the requisite capacity to direct the employment of others, you have twenty-one, because the coöperative association has qualified twenty new men for the high and beneficial office

of originating employments and directing successfully the productive energy of their fellow men. With the increase in the number of those qualified to profitably direct the employments of their fellows, there is to be a corresponding increase in the numbers demanded by the proprietor or the employer classes, and with the increase of the number of employers there is necessarily a corresponding intensity of competition between them in the field of originating employment. This competitive relation alone would raise the reward of labor.

HOW TO INCREASE THE DEMAND FOR WORKERS.

Increase the number of those who have sufficient capacity to originate employment, and derive a profit out of directing the energies and industries of their fellow men, and you necessarily increase the demand for employés. Thus coöperation will increase the number of those qualified to originate employments, and thus import into the industrial system a competition among the employer class, a condition highly favorable to the employed.

If I have been so fortunate as to make myself clearly understood, you will perceive that the underlying difference between an industrial system conforming to the principles of coöperation and one dependent upon perpetuating the relation between employer and employé, is one which addresses itself directly to the distribution of wealth. In the employed relation, the number of men an individual can employ is limited only to his skill and capacity as an employer, and to the amount of profitable and productive employment he is able to offer.

There are individuals, and associations of a small number of individuals, who are employing large numbers of men. I have no statistics at hand which would enable me to state with accuracy the highest number employed by a single individual, but I assume that there are those who employ in the enterprises projected and carried forward by themselves as high as twenty thousand men, women, and children. There is a single stationer in the city of London who employs in a single building, in printing, engraving, and lithographing, three thousand six hundred men, women, and children, and the same individual employs fully as many more in the manufacture of paper, envelopes, etc. Here is a joint effort having two distinct departments. On the part of the employer, the problem to be solved is the purchase of material, economic direction of labor, and the sale of manufactured goods. Subsidiary to these, it is the office of the employer to discern clearly the tastes and demands of the public, and not only to supply a demand already existing, but to promote or create additional demand. The manufacturer who has no regard for merchandise is liable to operate at a disadvantage. The merchandising side of the effort, therefore, becomes an incident of successful manufacture. Moreover, the problem of success requires skill in the purchase of material, which, as we have seen, is merely a form of labor not performed under his direction, and also the promotion of skill, industry, and diligence among his employés.

The profitable employment of so large a number of men, and the successful solution of all the problems involved, is a very high office, requiring a broad range of faculty, great breadth of view, vast executive capacity, systematic economy in the various departments, and tireless commercial activity. The financial success of such a man, in the natural order of things, will be greater than that of any single individual employed by him. A small profit arising upon the production of each of several thou-

sand persons in his employ, when aggregated, will make, in the course of a business career, a large accumulation in his hands, and proportionately to the number employed, the proprietor class will necessarily accumulate comparatively large fortunes as compared with the laboring class. Likewise, the merchant, who is a distributor of the product of labor, and stands between the producer and the consumer, devotes his thought, his time, and his energy to the accumulation of profits arising out of production due to the labor of others. The office of the merchant is a beneficent one. He performs the very necessary function in the commercial organization of distributing economically the product of labor.

DIVISIONS OF HUMAN LABOR.

The division of human labor into separate departments of activity has in all time been recognized as highly advantageous. The object of all production is the exchange of labor in these separate departments. The shoemaker devotes himself to the manufacture of shoes and boots, and thereby acquires great facility in the trade; but his own necessities are varied, and a great variety of trades and callings are brought into requisition to supply his wants. The wares he produces must be exchanged, and the merchant is the medium of this exchange. If the office he performs is conducted strictly in accordance with true, mercantile principles, it is an indispensable one to the profitable exchange of the varied products of the various departments of human activity.

All these various offices, to be successfully and advantageously filled, require special preparatory education and experience. Successful merchandising is as much the result of trained faculties, broad and enlightened intelligence, and skill as the making of a good watch. Underlying every occupation, and indispensable to success, there are certain fundamental principles which must be clearly comprehended and completely mastered, and the possession of the knowledge of these principles and of their application to business is in each instance a profession or calling, or, as we may say, a trained occupation. The producer of things useful to men lives in what we may term, for the purpose of illustration, the world of production. The employer class and the distributing class may be said to live in a realm of accumulation.

Coöperative efforts associates these two great departments, and combines them in one and the same body of men. Coöperation being a method by which an individual employs his own labor, and thereby accumulates the premium which, under the opposite system of industry, inures to the benefit of the employer, it becomes, at the same time, a more effective method of accumulation.

HOW COÖPERATION CAN BE EFFECTED.

The advantage of coöperation being established, the question naturally arises, how it can be effected. The bill I have introduced in the Senate of the United States is designed to be the practical instrument of coöperative organization. It will give legal definition and status to coöperative institutions. It is designed to define clearly the relative rights, duties, and obligations of individuals in a coöperative relation, and also the legal relations of such institutions to individuals, corporations, and other coöperative institutions.

At the very threshold of coöperative effort we find that the coöperative association must perform for itself the offices that have been performed by

the employer, by the purchaser of materials, by the director of labor, and by the merchant.

Coöperation is not itself designed to eliminate, and could not eliminate if it was so designed, these offices from human activity. What is designed is that labor shall perform these functions for itself; unless they are performed with the same executive qualifications necessary to success under the opposite system, they will result in failure. The first thing necessary, then, is a plain recognition, on the part of those intending to unite their labor into coöperative relation, of the necessity for an intelligent direction equal to that which directs labor in the employed relation, for equal executive ability in the purchase of materials, the distribution of labor, the direction of skill, and the sale of wares.

Success in all these departments of activity are as much dependent upon capacity and preparatory education as mechanical skill or professional acquirement. The first step, therefore, will be for those engaged in a calling, or craft, to associate a chosen number who, availing themselves of the provisions of the bill, enter into a legal organization wherein their duties and obligations are defined by law. The second step is to select from their number executive officers who, by reason of their experience and special fitness, are qualified to perform the higher offices of directing to an intelligent issue the coöperative effort.

This enforces a clear recognition of several things, chief among which is that productive labor, however intelligent or skillful in the realm of its special production, requires intelligent direction to reach successful results. Due regard must be had for the special department of labor in which the coöperation is undertaken. Thought must be bestowed upon the quality and character of the wares and merchandise produced. Judgment must be exercised in the apportionment of labor to those most skilled in its separate branches. Executive ability must be employed in the financial department of such an undertaking. Thus, executive ability, financiering skill, clerical accomplishment, and, in short, the exercise of all the varied qualifications which combined guarantee to the employed relation all the success it has ever achieved, and necessary to a coöperative institution.

I think I have observed a reluctance, on the part of men whose lives have been spent in productive labor, to recognize clearly and fully the difference of capacity among men. Coöperation will be a failure without such recognition. Coöperation is not designed to be the haven of incompetency, but to combine the full force of united strength working as a unit for a common benefit.

LABOR TO BE UNDER PROPER DIRECTION.

When a method of industrial organization is sought, the underlying principle of which is to give to labor the full reward of its toil, any attempt to merge the capacities of those coöperating, whereby a general average will be struck between competency and incompetency, diligence and sloth, intelligence and ignorance, will be at once in contravention of the great underlying principles of coöperation. Further than this, it is not the design to divorce labor from its intelligent direction, but rather to associate the intelligence as well as the productive skill and capacity of workingmen into coöperative relation.

Under the provisions of the bill it will be possible for those proposing to form a coöperative society to so formulate their articles of association that the unworthy, should any such become members, can be divested of their membership. This can be accomplished by providing the means by

which an appraisement of the value of an interest may be had, and if the association shall be so unfortunate as to find among their number one addicted to drunkenness, to immoral practices, to habits of indolence, or insubordination, or possessed of a violent and intractable temper, such member's interest in the association may, upon demand of two thirds of the membership, be appraised, and upon payment to him of the value of his interest the member himself can be expelled, thus rooting out all those whose habits or disposition would make their membership a continued menace to the success of the society. A coöperative association may also provide that each member shall receive wages or salary, and while being invested with membership will, during the time he is employed, act in the capacity of workingman, under the direction of the President or General Director. In this employed relation the officer over him should not be denied that degree of authority which will enable him to enforce all the discipline of industry, all the requirements of good workmanship, skill, and diligence which will be found to be indispensable to success.

ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION.

All these contingencies may be provided for in the articles of association, which each member should be required to sign, and which would constitute a code of rules and regulations, forming the basis of the agreement between the members. In this sense a coöperative society would be the employer of its own members. It would pay wages, and if the aggregate product of the labor performed yielded a profit in excess of the wages paid, then out of such profit a dividend to the members should be declared, and the dividend should be paid to the membership in proportion to the labor performed by each. If, in the prosecution of any enterprise, the association should find it profitable to employ persons who are not members of the association, such employment would not be inconsistent with the objects of the association. Such association should in all respects remain voluntary, and a coöperative society should be at liberty to admit additional membership, if profitable employment can be found for an additional number of members, or to employ in emergencies the time of workingmen, the same as labor is employed by individuals or corporations.

All that organization implies is the existence of a unified body, having organs with separate functions.

Coöperative organization must necessarily conform to this law of being. In the prosecution of any enterprise there are natural departments of activity. These varied departments call for capacity in the performance of their functions. It will become speedily apparent that a single head—to be called, perhaps, a manager or director—must be chosen, and this head must be invested with that degree of power necessary to the accomplishment of definite and successful results. The highest test of fitness to enter into the coöperative relation will be the intelligent perception of the necessity of obedience. Every undertaking is amenable to certain inexorable laws, which may be termed the law of its success. Coöperative organizations must be brought under subjection to these laws. To this end capacity in each natural subdivision or department of activity must not be denied that degree of authority necessary to make its functions effective for the good of the whole. Otherwise the reward of industry will be defeated by the incompetency of its management and direction, by waste in the purchases and sales, by ignorance of the relation of demand and supply, and by all other vicissitudes and attributes, which confer upon the

commercial and manufacturing activity surrounding us the changing kaleidoscope of success and failure. There is no royal road to great achievements in any department of human thought or human activity. Coöperation will not, therefore, abolish the law of commercial success and failure. However great the advantages to labor of the coöperative principles, coöperation itself will be amenable to the great law that the success of all efforts is ultimately dependent upon its intelligent direction.

Intelligent concurrence in the proper direction of effort is equal in dignity to the intelligence which directs. By far too little importance has been attached to this great truth. However high the intelligence which directs, its measure of success is forever dependent upon the concurrence of the association. Coöperative organization will, therefore, find itself amenable to those laws of intelligent direction and intelligent concurrence. They will find it necessary to define the functions of office, and to commit the discharge of these functions to those best qualified to perform them.

THE NEW SPHERE OF ACTIVITY.

Thus organized, coöperative association is equipped with the full round of competency. In such relation the members enter a new and higher realm of activity. It is by their concurrence that they are directed, and thus concurrence becomes itself the directing force. There are large numbers of men whose services may be secured, already well qualified to fill the necessary offices of such an organization, and thus entering upon an employed relation founded in concurrence, each associate becomes in a sense the director of his own labor, and each member begins at the very outset to acquire competency in a higher and broader realm. Each coöperative institution will, therefore, become a school of business, in which each member will acquire a knowledge of the laws of trade and commerce pertaining to his business, and thus to their mechanical skill each will be adding a stock of that knowledge so necessary to success in the realm of accumulation.

The value of all this to the character of citizenship should be apparent, without illustration. To comprehend it in all its breadth, however, let us assume that in all time all labor had been thus self-directing. If instead of the proposition before us to change the industrial system from the employed relation, and place it under self-direction, the coöperative form of industrial organization had existed from all time, and we were now for the first time proposing to reorganize the employment of labor, and place it under non-concurrent direction, I apprehend the proposer of such a change would be regarded in the light of an enslaver of his race. He would be amenable to the charge that his effort was in the direction of reducing the laboring men to an automaton, and that vague apprehension with which all untried experiments are beset would leave but small distinction in the minds of workingmen between the submission of all labor to the uncontrolled direction of an employer and actual slavery. We may safely assume that such a change would be impossible—that men are not likely to voluntarily surrender the independence of character which coöperation would establish for any lower degree of servitude.

DIGNITY OF LABOR.

I would not by this illustration be understood as claiming that any useful employment is lacking in dignity. All labor is honorable, all industry noble, and, under the operation of our free institutions and our free educa-

tional systems, the masses of workingmen have become constantly more intelligent and more worthy. In fact coöperation is merely an extension to the industrial life of our people; of our great political system of self government. That government itself is founded upon the great doctrine of the consent of the governed, and has its cornerstone in the memorable principle that men are endowed with inalienable rights. This great principle has a clearly defined place in coöperative organization. The right of each individual in any relation to secure to himself the full benefits of his intelligence, his capacity, his industry, and skill are among the inalienable inheritances of humanity.

To resume, however, the practical phases of this question, I can see no reason why coöperation may not be extended into various branches. As a people we are engaged in a varied agriculture, as well as in a variety of manufactures, and a varied commerce. A coöperative association designed to furnish labor for farming operations is clearly within the realm of practical achievement. A varied agriculture demands labor at different seasons of the year. An association of industrious, intelligent, and sober agricultural laborers, comprising men qualified to perform intelligently the varied requirements of agriculture and horticulture, would be of inestimable benefit in our labor system. They could organize for the purpose of furnishing labor as the vicissitudes of the season may require. There are various seasons for the various products; therefore coöperation would insure to the farm laborer annual employment arising out of the variety of the production of a neighborhood.

There is the season of plowing, of planting, of pruning, of harvesting, of the vintage, and these seasons are not coincident. An organized body of laborers, responsible as an organization for the faithful performance of the duties of its members, would find a large premium inuring to them, growing out of the facilities thus afforded to employ from a single labor exchange a sufficient number of workmen for the accomplishment of these varied operations in their appropriate seasons. Finally, it will be found that in coöperation, as in every other department of human activity, success will depend upon the adjustment of men to their various duties, according to their highest fitness. Let the man best fitted to direct, be chosen for that office. Then let intelligent concurrence supplement his effort, and honesty and intelligence will accomplish all the rest.

THE COÖPERATIVE BILL.

The bill under consideration was introduced in the hope that it would prove an instrument for the accomplishment of these great results:

In the Senate of the United States, December 20, 1886, Mr. Stanford introduced the following bill, which was read twice and ordered to lie on the table: A bill to encourage coöperation and to provide for the formation of associations in the District of Columbia, for the purpose of conducting any lawful business and dividing the profits among the members thereof.

WHEREAS, The right of association for any lawful purpose is a natural right; and whereas, the exercise of this right enables persons of small means, or whose only capital is labor, to combine such means or labor in a common enterprise, and bring to it the strength of the whole, and the intelligence of all; and whereas, the passage of liberal laws relating to the mode and manner by which coöperative associations may be formed, and defining the rights and duties of the members thereof, will encourage the formation of such associations, and give the incentive to industry which comes from a knowledge that its fruits will be secured to the worker; therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any two or more persons may associate themselves together in the manner prescribed by this Act for the purpose of conducting any lawful business, trade, or occupation, or for any purpose for which individuals may lawfully associate themselves.

SEC. 2. That any two or more persons desiring to associate themselves together for the purpose aforesaid shall prepare articles of association, which articles shall set forth—

First—The name of the association.

Second—The purpose for which it is formed.

Third—The place where its principal business is to be transacted.

Fourth—The term for which it is to exist, not exceeding ninety-nine years.

Fifth—The number of the managers thereof, and the names and residences of those who are appointed for the first year.

Sixth—The amount of moneyed capital, if any, and the number of shares into which that capital is divided.

Seventh—If there is no moneyed capital, then the amount and kind of property which the association devote to the enterprise, and the interest of each therein.

Eighth—If there is neither a moneyed capital nor other property devoted, but the labor alone of the associates is in the first instance combined, then the amount of labor to be performed by each, the terms upon which it will be performed, and what percentage of the net proceeds of such labor shall be reserved to the association as capital for future operations.

Ninth—If moneyed capital and other property is combined, then the amount thereof and the kind of property, and the share or interest of each therein.

Tenth—If labor is combined with either moneyed capital or other property, or both, then the share or interest of each therein, the amount of labor to be performed by each, the terms upon which it will be performed, and what percentage of the net proceeds of such labor shall be reserved to the association as capital for future operations.

SEC. 3. That the articles of association hereinbefore provided for must be subscribed by the original associates and acknowledged by each before any officer of, or in any State or Territory of the United States having a seal, and authorized by the laws of such State or Territory to take and certify acknowledgments of conveyances of real property.

SEC. 4. That the articles of association so subscribed and acknowledged must be filed for record, and recorded in the office of the Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia, which officer must, upon the filing, make and deliver to the associates, or their agents, a certified copy thereof, noting on the same day and hour of its issuance; from which time the association shall be complete, and it shall have and exercise all the power for which it was formed.

SEC. 5. That a copy of any articles of association filed in pursuance of this Act and certified by said Recorder of Deeds, shall be received in all Courts and other places as prima facie evidence of the facts therein stated.

SEC. 6. That every association formed under this Act must, within ninety days after filing the articles of association, adopt a code of by-laws for the government of the association, not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the United States. The assent of members representing a majority of the capital stock or property subscribed, if there be a capital stock or property subscribed, or a majority of the associates, if there be no capital stock or property subscribed, shall be necessary to adopt by-laws.

SEC. 7. That any such association may, by its code of by-laws, provide for—

First—The time, place, and manner of calling and conducting its meetings.

Second—The number of members of the association which shall constitute a quorum.

Third—Voting by proxy, if it is so desired, and the mode and manner thereof.

Fourth—The number of managers, the time of their election, their term of office, the mode and manner of their removal, and the power and authority thereof.

Fifth—The compensation, if any, of the managers.

Sixth—The number of officers, if any other than the managers, and their tenure of office.

Seventh—The mode and manner of the transfer of shares, and the succession in membership.

Eighth—The restriction, if any, upon the transfer of shares, membership, and rights in the association, and the limitations as to the amount of interest to be held by any one or more of the associates.

Ninth—The mode and manner of conducting business.

Tenth—The mode and manner of conducting elections.

Eleventh—For assessments upon the moneyed capital subscribed, if any, or for the installments to be paid at stated periods, or for work to be done; the mode and manner of enforcing the payment of such assessments or installments, or doing work, or for forfeiting or selling the shares or interest of any member of the association delinquent for such assessments, or installments, or work.

Twelfth—Such other things as may be proper to carry out the purpose for which the association was formed.

SEC. 8. That the by-laws adopted must be signed by a majority of the associates and recorded in a book to be kept in the office of the association, and a copy of such record, duly authenticated by the seal of the association, if any, and signed by the keeper of such record, must be filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of said district. The by-laws may be repealed or new by-laws may be adopted at any meeting of the associates, by a vote of members representing two thirds of the capital stock, if any, or two thirds of the property devoted to the enterprise, if any, or if labor alone is devoted to the enterprise, then by two thirds of the persons composing such association; and the amendments, revisions, and new by-laws shall be recorded and filed in the manner provided for recording and filing the original.

SEC. 9. That every association formed under this Act shall have power—

First—Of succession by its associate name for the period of ninety-nine years.

Second—To in such name sue and be sued in any Court.

Third—To make and use a common seal and alter the same at pleasure.

Fourth—To purchase, hold, and convey real and personal property, as the purposes of the association may require.

Fifth—To appoint such subordinate officers or agents as the business may require, and to allow them suitable compensation.

Sixth—To admit associates, and to sell or forfeit their interest in the association for the purpose of paying assessments on or in default of installments or of work or labor required.

Seventh—To enter into any obligations or contracts essential to the transaction of its affairs, or for the purpose for which it was formed; but such association shall not have power to issue bills, notes, or other evidences of debt, upon loans or otherwise, for circulation as money.

Eighth—To do all other things proper to be done for the purpose of carrying into effect the objects for which the association is formed.

SEC. 10. That two or more associations formed and existing under the provisions of this Act may be consolidated one with the other, upon such terms as may be agreed upon in writing by members representing two thirds of the capital stock, if any, of each association, or two thirds of the property, if any, of each association, or if neither capital stock nor property, then two thirds of the members of each association, in which case articles of consolidation shall be prepared and filed in the same manner and form as the original articles of association, and with like effect; and from and after the filing of such articles, the association comprising the component parts of the consolidated association shall cease to exist, and the consolidated association shall succeed to all the rights, duties, and powers of the component associations, and be possessed of all the rights, duties, and powers prescribed in the articles of the consolidated association, and shall be subject to all the liabilities and obligations of the association's component parts thereof.

SEC. 11. That all associations formed and existing under this Act are required to keep a record of all their business transactions, which records shall be subject to inspection by any of the members thereof, and a copy thereof shall be prima facie evidence of the facts therein stated in all Courts and other places when offered in evidence.

SEC. 12. That in addition to such records, full books of account must be kept, showing the names of the members of the association, the amount of the capital stock, if any, the property, if any, belonging to the association, and all other things proper to show the condition in every respect of the affairs of the association.

SEC. 13. That no member of the association shall be individually or personally liable for any of its debts or liabilities, except in case he has subscribed to the association moneyed capital, and in that event he shall be liable on such debts and liabilities for the amount of the unpaid portions, if any, of such subscriptions; and all the property of the association, and all unpaid subscriptions, if any, shall, in case of the failure of such association to meet any, of its obligations, be liable—

First—To the payment of all debts due to persons not members of the association.

Second—After the payment of all debts not due to the members of the association, then for any balance to the members of such association. And the property of such association may be taken in satisfaction of any judgment obtained against it in the same manner as the property of an individual. The interest of any member in such association may be levied upon and taken in satisfaction of any judgment against him in the same manner as the share of a partner in a partnership may be taken, and the purchaser at any sale made under such levy shall succeed to the interest of the associate against whom the process ran, subject, however, to such limitations as may by the by-laws of said association have been provided for in relation to succession.

SEC. 14. That the right of any association claiming to be organized under this Act to do business may be inquired into by quo warranto at the suit of the Attorney-General of the United States; but the right of an association claiming in good faith to be organized under this Act, and doing business as such association, shall not be inquired into in any collateral proceeding, nor shall its right and authority to do business as such be questioned, except by the aforesaid proceedings, in the nature of quo warranto, at the suit of the Attorney-General of the United States.

SEC. 15. This Act having been passed to promote the association of individuals, and to induce them to combine their capital or labor for their mutual welfare and the public good, therefore the rule of common law that statutes in derogation thereof shall be strictly construed shall have no application to this Act, but its provisions must at all times be liberally construed, with a view to effect its object and to promote its purposes.

SEC. 16. That this Act shall be in force and effect from and after its passage.

PART VII.

PUBLIC INVESTIGATIONS BY THE BUREAU.

CHAPTER I.

LABOR ON PACIFIC COAST VESSELS.

Since the last report of this bureau was issued public investigations were held as follows:

1. Into condition of men working in coast vessels.
2. Into condition of men working on the city front, San Francisco.
3. Into condition of men working for "sweaters," or middlemen.
4. Into condition of men on a strike at San Pedro.
5. Into condition of male and female printers.

Acting in the capacity of a Board of Conciliation much good has been accomplished in the way of strengthening union organizations, and harmonizing differences between employers and their employés.

Prior to the first investigation, labor on the city front lacked unity of interests and concentration of force for the common good. Now they are nearly all united in a federated body, and the utmost harmony and good feeling prevail. This body is known as the "Wharf and Wave Federation," and numbers at present six thousand five hundred and seventy members, with a likelihood of an immediate addition of twelve hundred more.

The report of the investigation into the condition of women working for "sweaters," or middlemen, is given in Chapter IV of Part II of this report.

The result of the investigation into the strike at San Pedro is given in Chapter III, Part III of this report.

The investigation into the condition of male and female printers in certain printing houses in San Francisco has been followed by most encouraging results. Cordial relations now exist between the "Pacific Press," of Oakland, and the Typographical Union, and several firms in San Francisco have acceded to the reasonable demands of the Typographical Union with regard to the scale of prices and the number of apprentices. The union itself has been greatly strengthened by the accession of many new members, and the general condition of the craft has been much improved. Messrs. Bacon & Company, however, still refuse to come to terms with the union, notwithstanding the good example of the "Pacific Press," and other firms.

As the testimony given in the course of these investigations is voluminous, covering nearly two hundred pages, I deemed it proper not to incumber this report with it, especially so as it has already been published in pamphlet form.

The causes which led to the investigation, a brief summary of the proceedings, and the conclusions at which I arrived, after all the testimony had been taken, were published at the time, and are herewith submitted:

INVESTIGATION BY THE COMMISSIONER OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS INTO THE CONDITION OF MEN WORKING ON THE WATERFRONT AND ON BOARD OF PACIFIC COAST VESSELS.

Communications were received June 15 and 16, 1887, by the Labor Commissioner, from the Representative Council of the Federated Trades and labor organizations of the Pacific Coast, and from the Knights of Labor of San Francisco, requesting him to investigate the condition of labor on the waterfront and on board of coast vessels.

On June twenty-second the following communication was also received from the Coast Seamen's Union of the Pacific Coast:

COAST SEAMEN'S UNION OF THE PACIFIC COAST,
SAN FRANCISCO, June 21, 1887.

JOHN J. TOBIN, *Esq., Commissioner State Bureau of Labor Statistics, San Francisco:*

DEAR SIR: The members of the Coast Seamen's Union of the Pacific Coast hereby join in the request that you commence an investigation of the status of the men on the waterfront and on board of the vessels touching the ports of the Pacific Coast. We feel convinced that it would be impossible to gain a correct insight into the peculiar circumstances existing among men working on board of the vessels, or on the piers, and in the docks, unless a great mass of testimony be adduced and collected from all sides. While we, therefore, are anxious to assist other organizations in this investigation, we would beg leave to suggest some reasons why the Coast Seamen's Union itself would lay claim to your attention.

The union has a membership of upwards of three thousand men who are constantly working on this coast, and who, under the laws of this country, are the direct wards of the Government, and, therefore, entitled to an attention, which has hitherto been very sparingly, indeed, given to them. The union has done its utmost to organize all sailors for the purpose, only, of making them thinking men. Agencies are established, and are in good working order, in Port Townsend, Eureka, San Pedro, and recently in San Diego. The system of official correspondence between the agencies and the head office in San Francisco, together with the system of finances and of mutual assistance in case of shipwreck, etc., have been perfected, and order created out of preëxisting chaos by the men themselves, and often in spite of a violent and bitter opposition from outsiders. These efforts achieved single-handed, should plead the cause of the men with any one who can give them an opportunity to state publicly, and through undeniable evidence, their grievances, their successes, and their defeats, so as to enlist public opinion in their warfare against oppression and the opponents of the progress of the union and the happiness of its members.

We would respectfully request that an investigation into the affairs of the coast sailors be made in the following three directions, viz.:

1. The manner of shipping men.
2. The treatment of the men on board, and their accommodations in the vessel.
3. The manner in which the men are paid off.

We believe that these three points will cover all. We feel sure that evidence of the most startling character can be brought to show how the sailor has been kept purposely in his present acknowledged degraded condition, to render him a will-less commodity in the hands of unscrupulous speculators, with which they could "bear" and "bull" the market. We shall adduce evidence to show how large corporations are systematically robbing their sailors, by paying them short wages, the shortings being too small for each separate man to make it profitable for him, under existing circumstances, to go to law about it, but when accumulated forming a large item in the yearly income of these corporations or their officials. We shall show how the "Sailors Home," an institution formed for a benevolent purpose, has been transformed into a common boarding-house, in which the practice of paying the sailor short wages is as generally adopted as it is among other institutions of that kind. We shall follow the sailor, step for step, and show how his propensity for strong drink is fostered by those who have the liquor trade in hand on the waterfront, and how his only hope of getting a new berth depends upon the speed with which he hands to the boarding-house master the wages earned on a former voyage. We shall show how, when he occasionally wakes up to a consciousness of the robbery and outrages perpetrated on him, and tries to regain by law what has been taken away from him by force, he is met by unexplainable delays and technicalities, which render it absolutely impossible for him to get redress for his wrongs, and this at the hands of a Government which the people appointed his special guardian.

Go to the waterfront and see for yourself what the condition is of a large class of citizens, on whose strength and sagacity depends one of the principal means of developing the wealth and resources of our country. Give them an opportunity of showing the forlorn hopes and outcast, abject condition of men, who are made to accumulate riches for others, while the enjoyment of common decencies of life are forever denied to themselves.

No investigation has, so far as we know, ever been made in this direction. Well may it

be, that the immensity of the task has frightened others from any such purpose. We hope that it may have no such influence on you, but that you will grant us our request, without limiting us as to time. The evidence is not always ready at hand. Many a man, whose testimony we would like to have brought before you, only comes into port at regular intervals of time. Much time will sometimes have to be consumed in order to bring out one valuable point.

We hope that this will not deter you from an undertaking calculated to benefit so large a class of America's workers.

Your obedient servants (for the C. S. U.),

V. HOFFMEYER, Chairman Advisory Committee.

ANDERS FURUSETH, Secretary Coast Seamen's Union.

Differences between employers and employés, troubles between rival labor organizations, or disturbed conditions between capital and labor, should properly be referred to a Board of Arbitration or Conciliation, for adjustment.

Having no such tribunal in this State, and the Labor Commissioner being recognized, by the industrial classes at least, as the only available arbiter in matters affecting the interest of labor, I considered it right and proper to follow precedent, and accede to the request of these organizations.

Although the powers of the Commissioner are limited by law to examining witnesses under oath, and sending for persons and papers, the facts brought to light during the investigation are likely to germinate wholesome remedies. The investigation opened June twenty-ninth, at the office of the bureau, 220 Sutter Street, and the Commissioner was ably assisted by the Special Agent of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Mr. Lee Meriwether. The investigation was thorough and extensive, as the large mass of testimony herewith submitted demonstrates. All parties interested—ship owners, masters of vessels, shipping officers, slop or outfit dealers, boarding-house keepers, officers of coast unions, and seafaring men, generally, were examined under oath. Affidavits from seafaring men, from other ports along the coast, were also submitted. The Coast Seamen's Union was represented by the Chairman of its Advisory Committee, Mr. V. Hoffmeyer, and Mr. W. W. Foote acted as counsel for the Ship Owner's Association, when testimony relating to the latter was taken.

The evidence clearly demonstrates the fact, already widely known, that the sailor, ashore, is looked upon as the legitimate prey of land sharks. From the day he arrives in port, until the day of his departure, he is never out of the hands of sharpers, who coax, wheedle, debauch, and pander to his worst vices, until his last dollar is gone. Not even then is he a free agent. As the price of release from their clutches, he must submit to have his future earnings mortgaged. He must labor hard for many a day to repay the blood money and the "advances" given on his account by these Shylocks.

From the testimony of sailors during the investigation (corroborated by personal inquiry) the manner of inveigling and preying upon the sailor may be thus described:

A day or two after a ship's arrival, a boarding-house runner goes aboard, professes great friendship and sympathy for the sailor, makes glowing promises about work and wages ashore, and finally induces him to leave his ship. The sailor goes ashore, and by so doing generally forfeits the wages due him.

Captains of vessels with the prospect of a long stay in port often take a hand in this, by abusive treatment of their men, in order that they may desert the ship, and thus make a clear gain to the owners of the sailors' accrued wages. This method of doing business is known among seafaring men as "working off." The boarding-house keeper into whose clutches the

sailor falls, keeps him, and supplies him with liquor and other unaccustomed luxuries, until his money is gone and a large bill is charged against him.

Then, and not till then, the boarding-house keeper procures him a berth on board a ship, taking care, however, that the Captain will secure for him the payment of all charges against the badly fleeced victim.

From the testimony it will be seen that sailors are charged extortionate rates for bringing them off the vessels and taking them on, for discounting their due bills, for commissions on account of getting them berths, and for other services. It has also been put in evidence that when sailors remain only a part of a week in a boarding house they are charged for a full week.

A cordial understanding seems to exist between the boarding-house keeper and a certain class of sailors' supply dealers. Masters of vessels are not ignorant of the coöperative schemes of which the sailor is the victim, and some even share in the spoils.

The sworn testimony of all proves that it is next to impossible for a sailor to get a berth, or what they term "a chance," without the aid and intervention of a boarding-house keeper or "master."

The latter goes to the Captain of a coast vessel, and, by paying a stipulated sum, induces him to agree to ship all his men through the said boarding master's agency.

Notwithstanding that all the boarding-house keepers who were examined denied that they paid this money, facts have come to the knowledge of the Commissioner, upon personal inquiry, which leaves no room to doubt of its being done.

When Mr. Swannack, Superintendent of the Sailors Home, was confronted with the items in his reports for the years 1885 and 1886, of $655 05 and $1,366 87, "paid for employment of sailors," he explained by saying said amounts were paid to Captains of vessels, as commissions for collecting bills due the Home.

The Clerk of the Home, John Fjerem, however, in his testimony candidly admitted that Captains were paid for the privilege of shipping men. He said: "When men are plentiful we generally have to give some kind of inducement to take them. It has gone under the name of collecting our bills, but it actually is for shipping." When questioned about the foregoing items, he answered, "I have kept all that; * * * when there was a ship we were glad to offer the Captain as much as four and five dollars a head to take men." On deep sea vessels the reverse of this is the case. The Captains pay instead of being paid for sailors. The money thus paid to boarding-house keepers is what is termed "blood money."

Superintendent Swannack testified that instead of raising sailors' wages when men became scarce, the blood money is increased. "The boarding masters," he said, "got $20 blood money last December, and they demanded $30, and they got $30. They wanted $40, but the Captains would rather raise the wages to $30 a month than pay the $40. When the boarding master gets $30 blood money, he gives the runner half of it, and pays him $5 besides for each man that he catches. When there are plenty of men to fill the ships, *instead of raising the wages*, the boarding masters give half the money back to the British Captains. It is they who demand this return—the American Captains seldom get anything."

The present system of paying an advance on sailors' wages is pregnant with evil. It tends to make the sailor improvident, by opening an avenue through which he can pay bills he would not otherwise contract. It makes him dependent upon the person to whom he owes a debt, and thus he

becomes a commercial slave rather than a free man, because his freedom of contract is destroyed.

The best and speediest way to remedy the evils complained of, and reform the corrupt and debasing methods now practiced, is by organization among the sailors. Banded together for protection, seafaring men will make their grievances known and felt, and remedies will be sure to follow. Since this investigation began an association has been formed for the express purpose of doing away with blood money. One of its leading promoters, Mr. F. B. Walton, testified that the Captains of the "G. F. Chapman" and the "Argus" refused to pay $40 blood money to exacting boarding-house masters. He said to them: "All right, gentlemen, I will go out and start another association, and let these men (the boarding masters) come up and talk as they like. It is a very hard thing to fight against these men. There are twenty-seven of them." Those two ships were supplied with sailors, and the association expects to supply others as they come.

The seamen on the great lakes between the United States and British America have formed an association called the "Lake Seamen's Union," which numbers over seven thousand men. The President of this union, Mr. Richard Powers, in the testimony given before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, in 1883 (page 422), said about the advantages gained, that—

Sailors are not so liable to be handled and used now as they were formerly—they are no longer to be run by the rum-shop influence. Another point is, they gain a little better wages in one respect, at least. On these inland seas they used to work not eight hours, not ten hours, but in many cases twenty-four hours a day. We had to rebel in our own way, and organize for our own protection. The organization has been a benefit to thousands. It has captured a class of people who were very degraded, lifted them up in society, and made them a credit to the land.

When men come off a vessel they have a reading-room to go to, and they now read and study questions and know what is going on. We made a demand for a certain amount of wages, and it was very liberally granted.

Q. What were the wages that the men received before the union was formed? A. $1 per day. They get $2 now at this season of the year.

Q. By what means did the union raise the price of labor? A. We just resolved in our meetings that we would sail for so much, and no less, and resolved that we would not sail with any one that did not belong to the union—allowing mates, and cooks, and Captains not to belong to it, of course. Nobody on board is supposed to belong to the union but the sailors on the vessel and one apprentice. We demanded the apprentice rule ourselves, for the purpose of bringing up sailors. We don't take boys from farms and make sailors of them at once; we want apprentices.

The Federated Seamen's Union of Australasia is also a powerful and well conducted organization, which has done and is doing good service in protecting the rights of seamen and ameliorating their condition.

The Coast Seamen's Union of the Pacific Coast, with headquarters in San Francisco, was organized March 6, 1885, and in about a month had a membership of one thousand seven hundred. A shipping office was then opened by the union, which proved a failure because, as the members allege, the ship owners, who promised their patronage, failed to do so.

In a year the membership increased to over three thousand, which embraced nearly all the sailors on the coast. The union then had apparently a bright future before it. In June, 1886, what is known as the Spreckels strike took place, which developed in the August following into a general strike of the Coast Seamen's Union. This strike was ill advised. The season was not opportune. The organization of the seamen had not had time to be sufficiently matured and prepared for such a contest. Some of the leaders and abettors were not men identified with the sailor interest. The result, failure, was inevitable under such circumstances. The ship

owners of the coast formed an association and opened a shipping office, through which men had to be shipped before they would be employed on coast vessels. The Coast Seamen's Union looked upon this shipping office as inimical to seamen's interests. It tried to obtain control of the shipping of men, and, failing in this, to have half control. Frustrated in both propositions bitter feelings of hostility were thereby engendered.

In the course of this investigation much has been said of a personal and recriminatory character between these two organizations in reference to events which occurred during the strike. As I consider such beyond the scope and purpose of the investigation, which had to do with the present and not the past conditions of seamen, I shall not express any opinion about them. The testimony speaks for itself. Suffice it to say, a fact which history teaches, so long as men allow others to do business for them which they can do for themselves, so long will they suffer. What is being done successfully in other places can surely be done in San Francisco.

The steamship sailors of this coast conduct their own shipping with most excellent results. Why not the sailing-vessel sailors do the same, and thus free themselves from the accursed boarding-house system?

An institution known as the "Sailors Home," under the control of the "Ladies Seamen's Friend Society," has been established at the old United States Marine Hospital, which has been donated for the purpose by the Government. Although clean, well kept, and conducted on temperance principles, it is not a charitable or benevolent institution, as its name would seem to imply. It is simply a boarding house, with charges similar to other boarding houses. The spiritual but not the physical infirmities of the inmates are attended to upon the premises.

The reforms asked for by the Coast Seamen's Union are summed up by Mr. V. Hoffmeyer in a very able argument which he presented on the facts elicited during this investigation. They are here submitted, and in them I most heartily concur:

The reforms which we ask you to assist us in carrying through consist for the coast sailor in those suggestions which I have permitted myself to make above. The union recognizes that reform in the shape of legislation must mainly refer to the deep-water sailor. It is the advance system which is at the bottom of all the trouble. By means of this system it becomes possible for the boarding-house master to fasten himself like a leech to the sailor. Were the advance system to be abolished the boarding houses would disappear in the course of a few years, simply because there would be no profit in them. That business would have to be changed to a cash business, or in other words they would have to confine themselves to legitimate operations. The blood-money system (by blood money is understood any money paid *by* the Captain to secure the services of a sailor, or *to* the Captain to secure a berth in the ship) is of far smaller consequence.

There have been many laws passed for the sailor since 1872. Indeed there are so many laws and amendments that considerable confusion exists as to what statute or law shall govern particular cases.

In 1872 the Shipping Commissioner's Act was passed, containing a complete system for the shipping and paying off of all sailors. This Act was amended in 1874 to apply only to deep-water sailors. In the same year the Shipping Commissioner's Act was entered upon the revised statutes. In 1884 another amendment was passed—commonly known as the Dingley Act—the principal features of which were that the seamen could be discharged in any port without the three months' extra pay for foreign ports, as the Shipping Commissioner's Act provided; that a slop-chest should be kept by the Captain on board from which the sailor could provide himself with articles of clothing and tobacco at a small advance over the wholesale prices; that no more hospital money could be deducted from the sailor's wages, and that no advance money should be paid to him when he shipped. The Dingley Act was later amended by allowing a certain amount of advance money in accordance with a given schedule. There is a question whether the amendment of 1874 applies to the amendments passed after that year, and consequently whether the coast sailor in any way can come under the Shipping Commissioner's Act, or its amendments. It is now generally held that he comes under the general admiralty laws. These laws make the sailor a ward of the Government, and refer him to the United States District Court if he desired to sue for wages, etc. There he must first have his complaint drawn up by a lawyer, and then presented to the District Court, or where no such exists, to the State Court or Justice of the Peace, who then shall commence a civil

suit against the Captain or the owners. These proceedings render it useless for the sailor to sue. First, because the necessary lawyer fees generally amount to more than the sum he desires to recover from the ship. Secondly, the Captain prepares a bill of exceptions, files bonds, and leaves with his ship, while the sailor must stay so as to be ready when the ship comes back, and this he usually cannot do, as he possesses no means by which to live during this time.

It will be seen that the benefit which the amendment of 1884 was intended to give the sailor, has been entirely neutralized by the later amendment, and the only effect of that Act, beyond the abolition of the hospital money, is that the sailor now can be discharged in foreign ports without the former three months' extra pay. The importance of the slop-chest has been reduced to nothing, as the advance money given makes it an object for the boarding-house master to sell, or rather, to force the sailor to buy, all necessary and unnecessary things from him before the ship starts. To effectually protect the sailor from the persecutions of the boarding-house master, the latter should be prohibited from being present in the Shipping Commissioner's office when the men are engaged. When it is announced that a ship will engage men for a certain voyage, on such and such a date, it should be made possible for the sailor to go to the office on that day and make his bargain with the Captain personally. We understand that this is so stipulated in the English shipping laws, and that it has worked great benefit to the sailors of that nation.

The seamen demand the passage of an Act by our National Legislature which shall cover the following points:

A law to prevent the giving of any advance money.

A law to make it possible for the sailor to ship himself without the intervention of any boarding-house master, or other person, by forbidding any one to appear with him before the Shipping Commissioner when he is engaged by the Captain and signs the articles.

A law which prevents a boarding-house master, or other person who has derived any profit from the sale of general merchandise to the sailors, from being appointed to the position of Shipping Commissioner.

A law which makes it possible for the sailor to draw the full amount of wages due him in any port of discharge.

A law providing that all cases for the recovery of seamen's wages in the United States Courts must be given preference over all other cases, whether on trial or not, and be tried and disposed of within forty-eight hours subsequent to the filing of the libel, provided the seaman shows reasonable diligence in prosecuting the same.

Very respectfully,

JOHN J. TOBIN,
Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

CHAPTER II.

INVESTIGATION OF LABOR MATTERS ON THE CITY FRONT, SAN FRANCISCO.

In compliance with the request of the Council of Federated Trades an investigation into the condition of labor on the city front of San Francisco was begun by this bureau on July 6, 1887. The matters particularly inquired into were those affecting sailors and longshoremen and stevedores. Many facts of interest and importance were brought to light and published in the daily press during the course of the investigation. Reprehensible methods of treating men, and unwarrantable, tricky, and unfair ways of treating fellow-craftsmen were shown up to the public gaze. There is no doubt that the exposure and publicity given these things will have an ameliorative effect, and reforms will undoubtedly follow.

There are twelve or more labor organizations along the waterfront:

Steamshipmen's Protective Association; Steamship Sailors Association; Pacific Coast Marine Firemen; Coast Seamen's Union; Steamship Stevedores Union; Stevedores Protective Association; Longshore Lumbermen's Union; Ship Joiners (mechanics) Union; Riggers Union; Riggers and Stevedores; Riggers and Shipwrights; Calkers Association; Coal Cart Association.

The Lumbermen's Protective Union is also a benevolent organization, with a membership of about fifty at present. This does not include all the

lumber stevedores along the waterfront, as three hundred or more belong to the Longshore Lumbermen's Association, closely allied to the Protective Union; in fact, one helps the other along, and a great many members of the former union belong to the latter. The wages are $4 per day, for nine hours' work, with 75 cents an hour for overtime. The Longshore Lumbermen's Association has a membership of three hundred and fifty; work for 45 cents per hour, or $4 per day of nine hours work, with the same overtime as the Protective Union. This union is gradually breaking up, as its members, not caring to support both organizations, are dropping out and joining the Longshoremen exclusively. Mr. A. C. Freese, a contractor, and President of the Protective Union, says a good man can average $75 a month, but those that average this amount are very few. The only difference in the two unions is that the Protective Union buries its dead, and gives a member $9 a week in case of sickness. The Longshoremen give the widow $100, which applies to the burial, and does not allow anything in case of sickness. Out of the three hundred and fifty members, not twenty can average $75 a month the year around. The balance can average from $40 to $50. The initiation fee into the Protective Union is $5, with $1 monthly dues. The Longshoremen pay $20 initiation and $1 a month dues. Most of the lumber dealers let their work out by contract to the stevedore contractors, who are either members of the union or are a little partial to them; consequently any not belonging to the union can be jumped by union men. Some lumbermen hire the men themselves, and load and unload their own vessels. According to a statement of a stevedore, not a member of any union, fifty or sixty men along the front do not get work from any one but from the dealers themselves. Such men can average $60 a month by working for 45 cents per hour for nine hours a day.

The Steamship Stevedores is a protective association, with about seven hundred members. They work for 30 cents an hour, but can work for less when others, not members, are found doing it. In other words, they can work for what they please, as they dare not strike for solid wages, because of so many men being around who will work for almost anything. There are about four hundred men outside the union who work for reduced wages.

Among the foregoing organizations considerable rivalry and jealousy exist between the Stevedores Protective Union and the Riggers and Stevedores Union Association. The latter was instituted July 25, 1853, and is therefore one of the oldest labor organizations in the city. The initiation fee amounts to $100, and it has a plethoric treasury. It has enjoyed almost a monopoly of the business, and at present controls the principal part of the stevedore business in San Francisco.

The Stevedores Protective Union is a young organization, without money in its treasury. The initiation fee is only $1, and, therefore, lacking the necessary financial backing, the members find themselves crowded out of employment by those of the older body. The rates of wages in both are the same—$5 per day. The members of the Stevedores Protective Union complain that they are constantly "jumped" or driven from work on vessels by those of the Riggers and Stevedores. The latter do not deny this, but claim a right to do so in the legitimate competition for preferment by master stevedores. They assert, and with reason, the rival organization, if they had the power, would pursue the same course which was now being carried out by the Riggers and Stevedores.

Very respectfully,

JOHN J. TOBIN,
Commissioner Bureau of Labor Statistics.

CHAPTER III.

PRINTERS IN SAN FRANCISCO AND OAKLAND—INVESTIGATION BY THE COMMISSIONER OF THE STATE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS INTO THE CONDITION OF LABOR IN PRINTING ESTABLISHMENTS OF SAN FRANCISCO AND OAKLAND.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA,
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, 220 SUTTER STREET,
SAN FRANCISCO, March 20, 1888.

In consequence of communications received, and representations made to the State Bureau of Labor Statistics by committees from the Typographical Unions of San Francisco and Oakland, a special investigation into the condition of labor in printing establishments in these cities was made by the undersigned State Labor Commissioner.

Allegations made on behalf of the printers set forth that certain printing firms were paying their employés a lower rate of wages than the standard fixed by the Typographical Union, which represented all but a small minority of the printers in the State. This, they claimed, had a tendency to cripple, degrade, and demoralize the craft.

Women and girls were employed by these firms at less than one half the wages paid to the same class who worked in other places, and belonged to the Typographical Union. Boys and girls, under the name of apprentices, were engaged by the same firms in large numbers, who, without pay, or at mere nominal wages, took the places and partly did the work which men and women receiving union wages were doing at other establishments. Complaints were also made against the arbitrary, unjust, and sometimes coarse treatment of female employés. The point was made that by these discreditable methods of doing business, such firms could underbid others employing journeymen and women at full union rates, and employing only the number of apprentices allowed by the Typographical Union.

A large number of book and job printing establishments were visited on behalf of this bureau for the purpose of obtaining facts regarding management, wages, treatment of employés, sanitary conditions, etc.

The following schedule shows the number of male and female printers, union and non-union, and apprentices, in the establishments named, which comprise nearly all the book and job printing houses of San Francisco.

Pressmen, book-binders, lithographers, etc., are not included:

Book and Job Printing Houses, San Francisco.

NAME.	UNION.		NON-UNION.		APPRENTICES.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Boys.	Girls.
H. S. Crocker & Co.	22		7		12	
Wilcox Bros.			2		1	
W. A. Woodward & Co.	4		4		1	1
C. W. Gordon			1		1	1
M. Weiss	1		2	1		
C. W. Nevin	3		1			2
W. C. Brown	2			1	5	
W. M. Hinton			2		1	
Donald Bruce			3			
S. W. Raveley			1	1	1	
Brunt & Fisher	1		1		2	
B. F. Sterett	1		1		1	

Book and Job Printing Houses, San Francisco—Continued.

Name.	Union.		Non-Union.		Apprentices.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Boys.	Girls.
P. E. Dougherty			4		2	
Francis, Valentine & Co.	2		10	2	9	6
J. C. Howe & Co.			1	5	2	
Painter & Co.			1			
Winterburn & Co.	1		3		4	
Hasbroeck				5		
D. J. Shine			1		1	
Thomas Printing Co.	2			1	3	
Fillmer & Stiller	16			8	1	1
Spaulding & Co.	6		4		7	
H. L. DeForrest			2			
Palmer & Rey	4		4	2	2	
R. Hill			1		1	
Rosenthal & Roesch			3		1	
H. E. Pastor				6	1	1
W. A. Bushnell	1	1				
Murdock & Co.	10				2	
J. Henderson & Co.	4			1		1
E. C. Hughes	2		2	4	1	
A. Lafontaine			1	1		
Stanley & Co.	1		3			
McCormick Bros.			3			
Bosqui Printing Co.	5				2	
J. R. Brodie & Co.	5				6	
A. L. Valleau			2		2	
Schmidt Label Co.			1		2	
Dodge Bros.			1		2	
Upton Bros.			2		1	
Occidental Printing Co.			2	4	3	
M. G. Tonini			2			
J. O. Jephson			2		2	
D. Lick			2	1		
W. H. Tobey			1	1		
J. H. Barry	3			1	2	
J. H. Leo & Co.			1		1	
Mrs. Richmond & Son	5	1	1		1	6
The Bancroft Company	8	1		3	5	2
Frank Eastman & Co.	7				2	
Totals	116	3	85	48	93	21

Total belonging to union, 119; total non-union, 133; total apprentices, 114.

Besides those enumerated in this schedule, there are about one hundred and fifty printers who have no permanent employment, and who shift around from place to place looking for a job where work is likely to be procured. These are chiefly non-union, and generally not expert at the business.

The total number of male and female printers in these book and job printing houses (excluding pressmen, etc.) is two hundred and fifty-two, and the number of apprentices one hundred and fourteen, or at the rate of one apprentice to about two and one fifth skilled mechanics. I do not believe there is to be found another trade where the number of apprentices bears so close a proportion to the number of journeymen and women. At this rate of increase there is little or no danger of a dearth of printers in the San Francisco market. As a general rule, apprentices receive no wages for the first three months; after that period they are paid from $1 to $3 per week. In many of these establishments the disproportionate number of apprentices is remarkable. In some they actually exceed the number of printers. The Typographical Union limits the number of apprentices to

one for every four journeymen. Francis, Valentine & Co. have fifteen apprentices to fourteen journeymen; Winterburn & Co., four to four; Spaulding & Co., seven to ten; J. R. Brodie & Co., six to five; A. L. Valleau, and J. O. Jephson, each two to two; Mrs. Richmond & Son, seven to seven; C. W. Gordon, Schmidt Label Co., and Dodge Bros., each two to one; and W. C. Brown, five to three. Whether a tender solicitude for the welfare of the youth of both sexes, or a desire to put money in their purse, or a judicious admixture of both motives, actuates these firms in employing so many juveniles, is not for me to determine.

The number of female printers in the job printing establishments who are members of the union is very small—only three out of a total of fifty-one.

The number of male union printers, on the contrary, exceeds that of non-union by thirty-one out of a total of two hundred and one, or they stand nearly in the ratio of three to two.

In most of the printing houses of San Francisco due regard is paid to cleanliness, light, ventilation, etc.; but some hold sacred dust and dirt, with their live concomitants. Separate water-closets for the sexes and proper washing facilities are not generally provided. In a few offices situated in the neighborhood of down town markets, the prevailing odors are not conducive to health or comfort. The location is not a matter of choice but of necessity, in consequence of the facilities for steam power afforded there. The firm of Fillmer & Stiller, with sixteen union male and eight non-union female printers, have only two apprentices. Murdock & Co., with ten male printers, and Frank Eastman & Co., with seven, have each two apprentices. It is to the credit of these establishments that no one can accuse them of trying to run their business with boy and girl cheap labor.

Further particulars regarding wages paid, etc., by the following firms, are subjoined: Bacon & Co., 508 Clay Street; Dewey & Co., 252 Market Street; R. G. Dun & Co., corner of Clay and Sansome Streets; H. E. Pastor, 712 Montgomery Street; Howe & Co., 615 Clay Street; Shearer & Co., ("Occident"), 429 Montgomery Street; Carlos White & Co., 320 Sansome Street; "Breeder and Sportsman" newspaper, 508 Montgomery Street.

Mr. Bacon, principal of the first named firm, received my deputy, Mr. John G. Leibert, Jr., very curtly, and refused to give the number of apprentices employed, or the rates of wages paid to his employés. He said the number of women and girls employed was twenty. My agent learned afterward from Mr. Bacon's forewoman that the number was only fourteen, of whom four were apprentices. The rates of wages paid were given to the latter as follows: 25 cents per 1,000 ems for composition on newspapers; 30 cents per 1,000 ems for composition on books.

Apprentices are bound by contract or indenture to serve a term of four years. For the first three months they receive no wages; for the next three months they are paid $12 per month, and for every succeeding six months they receive $3 per month advance. Ten per cent of this amount is retained by the principal as a guarantee for the fulfillment of the contract, and in case the apprentice should leave, or be discharged for cause, before the expiration of the term of apprenticeship, the whole amount so retained is forfeited. No interest is allowed on the wages kept back by Bacon & Co.

This contract or indenture is a remarkable document, on account of its one-sidedness, and demonstrates the necessity of having a good apprenticeship law on our statute books. It hedges around the unfortunate apprentice with all kinds of obligations, with their corresponding penalties, of which the following is a specimen:

The said [name of apprentice] shall conform to all the rules and regulations now in force in the printing office of said parties of the second part, and to such changes as may

hereafter be made therein; and shall faithfully and diligently perform *all lawful work and labor in and about said employment that may be required of him;* and obey *all directions* of said parties of the second part, within the scope of his employment; and a failure, neglect, or refusal of said —— —— to conform to said rules and regulations, and the changes thereof, that may hereafter be made, and to perform said work and labor, or *to obey said directions, or any of them,* shall be just cause for his discharge from said employment and for the *forfeiture of said reserved pay.*

It would be difficult to find anything to add to make it the more binding, or prevent any loophole for escape from its ironclad provisions.

On the other side, the employer is incased in solid armor against any and every attack against his person or pocket. The only obligation of duty entailing any effort on his part to teach the boy or girl the trade of printing is summed up in these words:

The said parties of the second part hereby agree to instruct the party of the third part in the business of printing, *through their employés, and not individually or personally.*

It is unnecessary to say the *italics* in the foregoing are not so italicised in the instrument. No penalty is provided for any failure or neglect on the part of Bacon & Co. to fulfill their part of the contract. In fact, either "individually or personally," they are under no obligation whatsoever.

If under such a condition of things, apprentices, past or present, of Bacon & Co. can be found, as no doubt they can, who have no word of complaint against the firm, it is fortunate for them that the delegated duty of teaching them their business fell to the hands of kind and competent persons, and that nothing gave occasion to the "party of the second part" to show his teeth or unglove his hand, to which this indenture gives such ponderous power.

Dewey & Co. pay 30 cents per 1,000 ems, and female compositors at this rate average $9 to $12 per week. Time workers are paid from $7 to $10 per week. There are eight girls in the composing room.

R. G. Dun & Co. pay 35 cents and 40 cents per 1,000 ems. Girls average from $7 to $10 per week.

H. E. Pastor pays 30 cents per 1,000 ems.

Howe & Co. pay 30 cents per 1,000 ems.

Shearer & Co., "Occident" newspaper, pay 30 cents per 1,000 ems.

"Breeder and Sportsman," newspaper, pays 35 cents per 1,000 ems.

The difference between the rates paid by the foregoing firms and those employing union printers can be seen by the following scale of wages laid down by the Typographical Union of San Francisco:

Morning newspapers, 50 cents per 1,000 ems.

Evening newspapers, 45 cents per 1,000 ems.

Book work, 40 cents per 1,000 ems.

Compositors employed by the week shall not receive less than $18 per week.

From the testimony it will be seen that outside the question of wages, little or no fault could be found with the "Pacific Press Publishing House," and its management. The weight of evidence showed that the establishment was all that could be desired for the health, comfort, and moral welfare of the employés. Those in positions of trust treated those under them with kindness. Apprentices received unusual care and attention. Printers have good reason to protest against the one year term of apprenticeship for girls. The Malthusian theory can be invoked here. The increase in the family of printers would become so great by such an abnormal method of production that it would soon become a question of the "survival of the fittest." Superintendent Jones says that "the reason why the girls are taught the trade in one year, while the boys take three years, is that girls

devote themselves to but one department, while the boys *may* work in several branches."

But suppose boys wish to confine themselves to the one branch referred to, viz.: type setting, would the managers of the "Pacific Press" place them on the same level with the girls? If not, why should not the terms of both be placed on the same level of three years, and give no cause for printers to cry out against flooding the market with half or quarter fledged journeymen and women? The policy of displacing men, many of whom have families depending upon them for support, by the class referred to, is one of the crying evils of the times. With this one exception of a one-year term of apprenticeship for girls, the system of apprenticeship and the entire treatment of the apprentices in the "Pacific Press" establishment appeared to me to be excellent.

While Bacon & Co. and some other firms in San Francisco, referred to in the testimony, pay girls no wages for the first three months, the "Pacific Press" pays them $3 a week. Again, it was shown, that unlike some of the San Francisco establishments, which depend mainly upon the labor of boys and girls, the "Pacific Press" has fewer apprentices to the number of journeymen and women than the rules of the Typographical Union permit. In giving the number of apprentices at thirty, out of a total of one hundred and seventy-five, it must be borne in mind, however, that most likely many of the women who are classed as journeywomen have served but one year as apprentices, and who would be classed as such for three succeeding years by the union. "Yearlings" are placed on the same footing with the "four-year-old." The term of girl apprenticeship is so short that the managers of the establishment could not readily inform me what was the exact number of apprentices now at work. They were in the same difficulty as a prolific Mormon would probably be in reciting, off-hand, the full name of each male and female of his numerous progeny.

The question of wages is, however, the core of contention between the Typographical Union and the "Pacific Press." It should be a matter of touching interest to the employés of the latter as well, because, admirable as the "Pacific Press" establishment is in all its appointments, the old saying still holds true: "A man can starve though he lives in a palace."

The "Pacific Press" scale of prices for composition is 30 cents per 1,000 ems.

Foreman in each department, $18 per week.

Forewomen in each department, $9 per week.

Proof-reader, male, $18 per week.

Proof-reader, female, $9 per week.

Journeymen in each department, $15 per week.

Women compositors, time workers, $9 per week.

Apprentices, both sexes, $3 per week for first six months, increasing $1 per week semi-annually.

Upon looking at this scale of wages, a person is immediately struck with the remarkable discrepancy between the wages paid to men as compared with those paid to women.

In the case of proof-reader, the men receive precisely double the wages of the women. One of the witnesses, Miss Emma Boyd (who is at present proof-reader on the "Pacific Press"), when asked why she was paid only half the wages paid to men, answered: "Because I served my apprenticeship there." A person unversed in Adventist methods would imagine that such would be the very reason why she should receive more. In the other departments women receive about three fifths of the wages paid to men.

One of the officers of this association confessed to me that the women

are underpaid. If he had added to this that, as compared to the rates paid to men, the women were *unjustly* paid, he would, in my opinion, express the situation properly. The Typographical Union have just reason to feel proud of their treatment, in this regard, of the female members of their craft. Equal work, equal pay, for both sexes, is the rule of the union. Equal term of apprenticeship for both sexes. A man and a woman standing side by side before their cases, and doing the same amount of work, receive at the end of the week precisely the same wages.

The union rates for composition in Oakland is 35 cents per 1,000 ems. Journeymen receive $18 per week. The testimony shows a wide divergence between the amounts actually earned by compositors working by the piece in the "Pacific Press," and in some of the daily newspapers in Oakland.

The indefatigable manager of the "Pacific Press," Mr. C. H. Jones, whilst acknowledging that "it is true that in some cases the rate of wages is not quite so high," yet offsets the defect by the assurance that "a man is sure of steady employment for six days in the week, no matter whether work is heavy or light, while in other offices a man is liable to be laid off at any time. So that in a year a man will actually receive more at the 'Pacific Press' than he would at the same work in other offices."

This is a good argument on the part of the manager, and deserves due consideration. No doubt similar printing houses in San Francisco, and other places, could advance the same argument, for the probability is when business become slack, it is the houses which pay full market rates must first let go, while those employing cheap labor can afford to hold on.

The managers of the "Pacific Press" claim that it is an institution founded for the express purpose of publishing and circulating religious literature. It is owned by stockholders. All the profits are devoted to enlarging the business, increasing its facilities, or forwarding Christian missionary enterprises.

Mr. Jones, the Superintendent, in his testimony, said: "You do not understand the nature of our institution; it is a religious establishment. If the employés have a wish to work for less wages than they could get elsewhere, and consider that they are giving so much to the cause, they have the same right to do so that you would to give a part of your wages to charity." Here is the turning point of the whole matter in dispute between the Typographical Union and the "Pacific Press." Undoubtedly the employés of the "Pacific Press" have a perfect legal and moral right to work for what wages they please, and do what they please with their wages. What is commendable in itself may, however, prove an evil by infringing upon the rights of our neighbor. To devote one's wages to the spread of the gospel may be praiseworthy, but to be the means of lowering the standard of wages, inflicts injury upon my fellow craftsman. So that whilst doing good to the heathen in foreign lands, I am doing harm to the Christian at my own doors.

Could not the same object be attained, and the same funds be supplied for religious purposes, if the employés were paid the regular standard of wages, and the difference between that standard and the present rates turned back as "offerings" into the church treasury?

For instance, the printer who is now paid $15 per week, while the standard of wages is $18, could be paid the latter amount, and he could then return $3 to the church treasury as a donation. It is of general repute that religious newspapers, weekly and monthly, pay the lowest rates for composition. They may throw in enough of the "spiritual" to counterbalance the lack of the "temporal," for aught I can say, but the employés

are in some way reconciled to the sacrifice, for Superintendent Jones says: "Those who love justice and eschew evil esteem it a privilege to work in our office."

Most likely the heads of some of the printing firms in San Francisco whose methods of doing business have been investigated, would console themselves in a similar strain.

The firm of Bacon & Company, though not a religious concern, claims to be a philanthropic one, on the ground of the large number of boys and girls to whom it has imparted a knowledge of the printing business. This firm takes exception to the rule of the Typographical Union limiting the number of apprentices. This they have a perfect right to do, for the question as to what number of apprentices should be allowed in any craft, or how they should be regulated, is an open and most momentous one.

"By their (the union) rule," say the firm, "Bacon & Co. would be allowed two apprentices where now they are training ten." This is a confession on the part of said firm that they are training five times the number of apprentices which the Typographical Union judges to be consistent with the welfare of their craft.

Bacon & Company complain because the Typographical Union fixes $18 per week as the scale for journeymen, when, as they say, "a man may be willing, *glad*, to work at a steady situation for $12 or $15." It is hard to believe that men with "glad" hearts will work for such firms at *two thirds* the rate of wages paid to their fellow craftsmen in other establishments.

If the Typographical Union should reduce the scale to $12 or $15, just such firms as Bacon & Company would find men who would "be willing, *glad*, to work at a steady situation" for $8 or $10 per week. They keep always sitting on the mechanic's safety valve. No wonder that printing firms paying standard, or union rates, find it hard and unprofitable to compete with establishments like the "Pacific Press," Bacon & Company, etc., which pay lower wages and have an unlimited number of apprentices.

It is to be hoped, as one good result of this investigation, that on both sides men will act calmly and dispassionately, so that a *modus vivendi* will be reached without resorting to methods which can only be productive of ill will, and possibly of future evil.

Very respectfully,

JOHN J. TOBIN,
Commissioner.

LETTER TO THE "PACIFIC PRESS."

The following admirable letter from a large dry goods firm to the managers of the "Pacific Press," puts the case of the printers in such a clear and convincing manner that it is well worthy of insertion here.

As a vindication of the right of the labor organizations to combine and make such regulations as they consider necessary to protect and promote their interests, this letter deserves careful perusal:

"*Pacific Press*," *Oakland*:

GENTLEMEN: As you are aware, we have been waited upon by a committee of wage earners with the request that we withhold our patronage from your house, on the grounds that the policy pursued by your establishment is one tending to lower the standard of wages among the craftsmen in your trade. We declined to comply with this request until we could inquire into the merits of the case and learn for ourselves the points at issue.

With this object in view we invited a call from Labor Commissioner Tobin, who had recently made an investigation of your concern, and we also invited a call from your management. After a thorough inquiry into the matter we find that there is much to commend in your institution and in many of your methods. That in many directions you are doing a good work, and show a generous and self-sacrificing spirit. But we also find that on the question of wages you are, in our judgment, pursuing a policy that must prove injurious to labor generally, and to the craft which your trade represents, in particular.

We fully recognize your right to pay your employés what you please. We fully recognize the right of your employés to accept as much or as little for their labor as you are willing to give and they to take. We fully recognize the right on the part of employés to do what they please with their earnings—to spend it in whisky if they choose, or to use a share of it or all for religious or benevolent purposes. These are privileges that are guaranteed us by the laws of our country; privileges with which no man has a right to interfere. But we also recognize your right and our right to withhold employment from those who are undeserving, and to withhold our patronage from individuals or institutions whose policies may be such as to affect the welfare of our community or our State.

We cannot hope to attain a high standard of civilization with a low standard of wages.

We believe that if the wide gap is to be maintained between the condition of the intelligent and prosperous wage earners of this country, and the paupered and wretched laborers of Europe, we must check and discourage every tendency toward cheap labor. This nation cannot be more enlightened nor more advanced socially or morally than are its people, and anything that helps reduce the earnings of its toilers must result in lowering the social, moral, and mental standard of the nation. We therefore trust that you will pardon the liberty we take in saying that we must disapprove of your policy on the wage question.

We should not feel called upon to write these things were it not that your Mr. Saunders requested us to let you know our conclusions, and, since we tell you our conclusion, we feel it is but proper to point out the reasons that have led us to this conclusion. We are told that you maintain that the difference between the standard wages and the wages paid by you, is simply a contribution toward your cause on the part of your employés.

While this may be so, it does not alter the fact that you establish a standard of wages against which others paying full rates cannot hope to compete. If your institution was small or obscure, it might have little or no influence on the wages of others. But standing as it does at the head, and employing as it does a larger number of people than any similar concern on the coast, it becomes a powerful factor in the labor market, and in the end must not alone result in forcing the wages of the craft down to your standard, but in the meanwhile it gives other employers the pretext of lowering wages in order, as they say, to successfully compete with you.

We believe that you will agree with us, that whatever tends to lower the standard of wages also tends to lower the standard of good citizenship, and if it is not your intention to lower the standard of wages received by others, then why would it not be well to pay standard wages, at least on such secular work as is a matter of general competition, permitting such of your employés as choose, to pay back into the church treasury this difference in wages? There are reasons that have been advanced by Mr. Saunders against this idea. The first is, that it would look like a subterfuge on your part, and smack of deceit; the other is, that it would seem as if you had surrendered to outside influences, involving on your part a sense of humiliation, and lastly, that an advance in wages might cause a loss of business.

The answer to the first objection would be that the world does not hold us responsible for what others say, but for what we ourselves do. So long as when bidding on work you would honestly base your calculations on and actually pay your employés standard wages, even though your employés should choose to pay 90 per cent of such wages into your church treasury, you could well afford to let others say what they please. It could not then be held against you that you were basing your bids on a low scale of wages, which in the end must compel others to do the same, nor could it then be said that your influence was tending to lower the plane of outside labor, while as a religious organization your aim should be the very opposite.

As to the second objection, namely, that to pay standard wages, after all that has been said and done, would seem as if you had surrendered to outside influence, thus involving, on your part, a sense of humiliation, we would answer that the question at issue should not be one of pride, but one of right and justice. It would seem to us that if you should find that you had unconsciously or otherwise been lowering the general standard of wages, that you would, without hesitation, and regardless of pride, correct this matter.

It would seem to us that you would the more readily correct an unwise policy, from the very fact of being not a secular concern, but an institution working in the interest of religion. Religion, as we understand it, is that which tends to elevate and make men better. And yet we know of nothing that is more likely to defeat the high aims of a broad spirit of religion than a low standard of wages. As for the last objection raised, namely, that an advance in wages might mean a loss of business, we should judge that you have little to fear in that direction. With your superb facilities and your improved methods of machinery, you should be able to more than successfully compete with others, even on the same wage scale. From an estimate made while your Mr. Saunders was here, it was found that on a contract, such as ours for the spring catalogue, the difference in your bid, had you been paying standard wages, would not have exceeded six per cent additional. It would, therefore, seem to us that unless there are other strong reasons, which thus far have not been presented, that by paying standard wages you neither do yourselves, your employés, nor your patrons an injustice; while by adhering to your present policy it must be held against you with telling force that your influence on the labor market is downward instead of upward.

As merchants, we deem it unwise to support any policy that tends to diminish the income of wage earners and consumers. As citizens, we should feel it unpatriotic to encourage any institution whose influence tends to lower the scale of wages, which in turn must lower the standard of good citizenship.

Yours truly,

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APPENDIX.

LABOR LAWS.

Building and Loan Association Laws of Massachusetts—Building and Loan Association Laws of Maine—Apprentice Laws of New York—Massachusetts Laws for the Employment of Children—Massachusetts Laws for the Prevention of Accidents in Factories.

APPENDIX.

LABOR LAWS.

BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATION LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

SECTION 1. Twenty-five or more persons, who associate themselves together by an agreement in writing, with the intention of forming a corporation for the purpose of accumulating the savings of its members paid into such corporation in fixed periodical installments, and lending to its members the funds so accumulated, shall be and remain a corporation complying with the provisions of the three following sections.

SEC. 2. The agreement shall set forth the fact that the subscribers thereto associated themselves with the intention of forming a corporation; the name by which the corporation shall be known; the purpose for which it is formed; the town or city, which shall be within this Commonwealth, in which it is located; and the limit of capital to be accumulated.

SEC. 3. The name shall be one not previously in use by any existing corporation established under the laws of this Commonwealth, and shall be changed only by an act of the general Court. The words "coöperative saving fund and loan association" shall form a part of the name. Section three of chapter one hundred and seventeen of the Public Statutes, relative to the name of coöperative saving fund and loan associations, is hereby amended by striking out the words "coöperative saving fund and loan association," in the fourth line, and inserting in place thereof the words "coöperative bank." The title of said chapter one hundred and seventeen of the Public Statutes is hereby amended by striking out the words "saving fund and loan associations," and inserting in place thereof the word "banks." The names of all coöperative saving fund and loan associations heretofore organized are hereby changed by striking out in each the words "saving fund and loan association," and inserting in place thereof the word "bank," and they shall hereafter be known as "coöperative banks." The first and second sections of this Act shall take effect upon its passage, and the third section upon the first day of July, in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-three.

SEC. 4. The provisions of sections eighteen, twenty, and twenty-one, of chapter one hundred and six, shall apply to such corporations, except that, in the certificate signed by the Secretary of the Commonwealth, the limit of capital to be accumulated, as fixed in the agreement of association, and shall be inserted, by said section twenty-one, to be filled and recorded, may be signed and sworn to by the presiding and financial officers, and a majority at least of the officers possessing the power of Directors by whatever name they may be called, and that the fees to be paid for filing and recording the certificates required by said section twenty-one, including the issuing of the certificate of organization, shall be five dollars.

SEC. 5. The capital to be accumulated shall not exceed one million dollars, and shall be divided into shares of the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each. The limitation of capital to be accumulated in any coöperative bank now organized, or hereafter formed under the provisions of chapter one hundred and seventeen of the Public Statutes, shall be held to apply to capital actually paid in, and no such bank shall be restrained from issuing shares so long as the capital actually paid in on shares is not in excess of one million dollars. The shares may be issued in quarterly, half yearly, or yearly series, in such amounts and at such times as the members may determine. No person shall hold more than twenty-five shares in the capital of any one such corporation. No shares of a prior series shall be issued after the issue of a new series.

SEC. 6. The number, title, duties, and compensation of the officers of the corporation, their terms of office, the time of their election, as well as the qualifications of electors, and time of each periodical meeting of the officers and members, shall be determined by the by-laws; but no member shall be entitled to more than one vote at any election. All officers shall continue in office until their successors are duly elected, and no corporation shall expire from neglect on its part to elect officers at the time prescribed by the by-laws. In any coöperative bank now or hereafter formed under the provisions of chapter one hundred and seventeen of the Public Statutes, the offices of Secretary and Treasurer may be held by one and the same person.

SEC. 7. The officers shall hold stated monthly meetings. At or before each of these meetings every member shall pay to the corporation, as a contribution to its capital, one

dollar as dues upon each share held by him, until the share reaches the ultimate value of two hundred dollars, or is withdrawn, canceled, or forfeited. Payment of dues on each series shall commence from its issue.

SEC. 8. A member may withdraw his unpledged shares at any time by giving thirty days' notice of his intention so to do, written in a book held and provided by the corporation for that purpose. Upon such withdrawal the shareholder's account shall be settled as follows: From the amount then standing to the credit of the shares to be withdrawn there shall be deducted all fines, a proportionate part of any unadjusted loss, together with such proportion of the profits previously credited to the shares as the by-laws may provide, and such shareholders shall be paid the balance; *provided*, that at no time shall more than one half of the funds in the treasury be applicable to the demands of withdrawing members, without the consent of the Directors. The Directors may, at their discretion, under rules made by them, retire the unpledged shares of any series at any time after four years from the date of their issue, by enforcing the withdrawal of the same; but whenever there shall remain in any series, at the expiration of five years after the date of its issue, an excess above one hundred unpledged shares, then it shall be the duty of the Directors to retire annually twenty-five per centum of such excess existing at said expiration of five years after the date of its issue, so that no more than one hundred unpledged shares shall remain in such series at the expiration of nine years from the date of its issue; and thereafter the Directors may, in their discretion, retire such other unpledged shares as they consider to the best interests of the bank to require; *provided*, that whenever under the provisions of this section the withdrawal of shares is to be enforced, the shares to be retired shall be determined by lot, and the holders thereof shall be paid the full value of their shares, less all fines and a proportionate part of any unadjusted loss; *provided also*, that shares pledged for share loans shall be treated as unpledged shares. Shares may be issued in the name of a minor, and if so issued, may, at the discretion of the Directors, be withdrawn, in manner as provided in section two of this Act, by such minor, the parent or guardian of such minor, and in either case payments made on such withdrawal of shares shall be valid. When a share or shares are held by any one in trust for another, the name and residence of the person for whom such share or shares are held shall be disclosed, and the account shall be kept in the name of such holder as trustee for such person; and if no other notice of the existence and terms of such trust has been given in writing to the corporation, in the event of the death of the trustee, such shares may be withdrawn by the person for whom such deposit was made, or by his legal representatives.

SEC. 9. When each unpledged share of a given series reaches the value of two hundred dollars, all payments of dues thereon shall cease, and the holder thereof shall be paid, out of the funds of the corporation, two hundred dollars thereof, with interest at the rate of six per cent a year from the time of such maturity to the time of payment; *provided*, that at no time shall more than one half of the funds in the treasury be applicable to the payment of such mature shares without the consent of Directors; *provided further*, that when any series of shares, either pledged or unpledged, reaches maturity between the dates of adjustment of profits, or whenever shares are retired between such dates, the holders of such shares shall, in addition to the value thereof, be entitled to interest at the rate of six per cent per annum for all full months from the date of the preceding adjustment. Chapter one hundred and seventeen of the Public Statutes is amended as follows, by adding to section nine the following words: "And that before paying matured shares all arrears and fines shall be deducted."

SEC. 10. The moneys accumulated, after due allowance made for all necessary and proper expenses, and for the withdrawal of shares, shall, at each stated monthly meeting, be offered to the members, according to the premiums bid for them for priority of right to loan. Each member whose bid is accepted shall be entitled, upon giving proper security, to receive a loan of two hundred dollars for each share held by him, or such fractional part of two hundred dollars as the by-laws may allow. If a balance of money remains unsold after a monthly sale, the Directors may invest the same in any of the securities named in the second clause of section twenty of chapter one hundred and sixteen.

SEC. 11. Premiums for loans shall consist of a percentage charged on the amount lent, in addition to interest, and shall be deemed to be a consideration paid by the borrower for the present use and possession of the future or ultimate value of his shares, and shall, together with interest and fines, be received by the corporation as a profit on the capital invested in the loan, and shall be distributed to the various shares and series of said capital, as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 12. A borrowing member, for each share borrowed upon, shall, in addition to his dues and monthly premium, pay monthly interest on his loan, at the rate of six per cent per annum, until his shares reach the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each, or the loan has been repaid; and when said ultimate value is reached, said shares and loan shall be declared canceled and satisfied, and the balance, if any, due upon the shares shall be paid to the member. Any corporation organized under said chapter one hundred and seventeen may provide in its by-laws that the bid for loans at its stated monthly meetings shall, instead of a premium, be a rate of annual interest upon the sum desired, payable in monthly installments. Such bids shall include the whole interest to be paid, and may be at any rate not less than five per cent per annum.

SEC. 13. For every loan made a note, secured by first mortgage of real estate, shall be given, accompanied by a transfer and pledge of the shares of the borrower. The shares so pledged shall be held by the corporation as collateral security for the performance of

the conditions of said note and mortgage. Said note and mortgage shall recite the number of shares pledged, and the amount of money advanced thereon, and shall be conditioned for the payment, at the stated meetings of the corporation, of the monthly dues on said shares, and the interest and premium upon the loan, together with all fines on payments in arrears, until said shares reach the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each, or said loan is otherwise canceled or discharged; *provided*, that the shares, without other security, may, in the discretion of the Directors, be pledged as a security for loans to an amount not exceeding their value as adjusted at the last adjustment and valuation of shares before the time of the loan. If the borrower neglects to offer security satisfactory to the Directors, within the time prescribed by the by-laws, his right to the loan shall be forfeited, and he shall be charged with one month's interest and one month's premium, at the rate bid by him, together with all expenses, if any, incurred; and the money appropriated for such loan may be reloaned at the next or any subsequent meeting.

SEC. 14. A borrower may repay a loan at any time, upon application to the corporation; whereupon, on settlement of his account, he shall be charged with the full amount of the original loan, together with all monthly installments of interest, premiums, and fines in arrears; shall be given credit for the withdrawing value of his shares pledged and transferred as security, and the balance shall be received by the corporation in full satisfaction and discharge of said loan; *provided*, that all settlements made at periods intervening between stated meetings of the Directors shall be made as of the date of the stated meetings next succeeding such settlement; *and provided*, that a borrower desiring to retain his shares and membership may, at his option, repay his loan without claiming credit for said shares. Whereupon, said shares shall be retransferred to him, and shall be free from any claim by reason of said canceled loan. Partial payment of loans on real estate made by any coöperative bank may be received in sums of fifty dollars, or any multiple thereof; and for each two hundred dollars so repaid, one share of stock shall be released from pledge.

SEC. 15. Members who make default in the payment of their monthly dues, interests, and premiums, shall be charged a fine not exceeding two per cent a month on each dollar in arrears. No fines shall be charged after the expiration of six months from the first lapse in any such payment, nor upon a fine in arrears. The shares of a member who continues in arrears more than six months, shall, at the option of the Directors, if the member fails to pay the arrears within thirty days after notice, be declared forfeited, and the withdrawing value of the shares at the time of the first default shall be ascertained, and after deducting all fines and other legal charges, the balance remaining shall be transferred to an account to be designated the "Forfeited Share Account," to the credit of the defaulting member. Said member, if not a borrower, shall be entitled, upon thirty days' notice, to receive the balance so transferred, without interest, from the time of the transfer, in the order of his turn, out of the funds appropriated to the payment of withdrawals. All shares so forfeited or transferred shall cease to participate in any profits of the corporation accruing after the last adjustment and valuation of shares before said first default.

SEC. 16. If a borrowing member is in arrears for dues, interest, premiums, or fines for more than six months, the Directors may, at their discretion, declare the shares forfeited, after one month's notice, if the arrears continue unpaid. The account of such borrowing member shall then be debited with the arrears of interest, "premium," and fines of date of forfeiture, and the shares shall be credited upon the loan at their withdrawing value. The balance of the account may, and after six months shall, be enforced against the security, and be recovered as secured debts are recovered at law.

SEC. 17. The general accounts of every such corporation shall be kept by double entry. All moneys received by the corporation from each member shall be receipted for by persons designated by the Directors, in a pass-book provided by the corporation for the use of, and to be held by, the member; and said pass-book shall be plainly marked with the name and residence of the holder thereof, the number of shares held by him, and the number or designation of the series or issue to which said shares respectively belong, and the date of the issue of such series. All moneys so received shall be originally entered by the proper officer in a book to be entitled the "cash book," to be provided by the corporation for the purpose, and the entries therein shall be so made as to show the name of the payer, the number of shares, the number or designation of the series or issue of the particular share or shares so entered, together with the amount of dues, interest, premiums, and fines paid thereon, as the case may be. Each payment shall be classified and entered into a column devoted to its kind. Said cash book shall be closed after the termination of each stated meeting, and shall be an exhibit of the receipts of all moneys paid at said meeting. All payments made by the corporation for any purpose whatsoever shall be by order, check, or draft upon the Treasurer, signed by the President and Secretary, and indorsed by the person in whose favor the same are drawn. The name of the payee, the amount paid, and the purpose, object, or thing for which the payment is made, together with its date, shall be entered on the margin of said order, check, or draft. The Treasurer shall dispose of and secure the safe keeping of all moneys, securities, and property of the corporation, in the manner designated by the by-laws, and the Treasurer and Secretary shall give such security for the faithful performance of their respective duties as the by-laws may direct.

SEC. 18. The profits and losses may be distributed annually, semi-annually, or quarterly, to the shares then existing, but shall be distributed at least once in each year, and whenever a new series of shares is to be issued. Profits and losses shall be distributed to the various shares existing at the time of said distribution in proportion to their value at that time, and shall be computed upon the basis of a single share fully paid to the date of

distribution. Losses shall be apportioned immediately after their occurrence. At each periodical distribution of profits the Directors shall reserve, as a guaranty fund, a sum not less than one nor more than five per cent of the net profits accruing since the next preceding adjustment, until such fund amounts to five per cent of the dues capital, which fund shall thereafter be maintained and held; and said fund shall be at all times available to meet losses in the business of the corporation from depreciation of its securities, or otherwise.

SEC. 19.* Any such corporation may purchase in any sale, public or private, any real estate upon which it may have a mortgage, judgment, lien, or other incumbrance, or in which it may have an interest; and may sell, convey, lease, or mortgage, at pleasure, the real estate so purchased to any person or persons whatsoever. All real estate so acquired shall be sold within five years from the acquisition of the title thereto.

SEC. 20. The Commissioners of Savings Banks shall perform, in reference to every such corporation, the same duties, and shall have the same powers, as are required of or given to them in reference to savings banks, and shall annually make report to the general Court of such facts and statements respecting such associations, and in such forms as they deem that the public interest requires. Every officer of such corporation shall answer truly all inquires made, and shall make all returns required by the Commissioners.

DIGEST OF BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATION LAWS OF MAINE.

Chapter forty-seven of the Revised Statutes is hereby amended by striking out sections one hundred and thirty-four, one hundred and thirty-five, one hundred and thirty-six, one hundred and thirty-seven, and one hundred and thirty-eight of said chapter forty-seven, and inserting instead thereof the following:

SECTION 134. The capital to be accumulated shall not exceed one million dollars, and shall be divided into shares of the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each. The shares may be issued in quarterly, half yearly, or yearly series, in such amounts and at such times as the members may determine. No person shall hold more than twenty-five shares in the capital of any one such association. No shares of a prior series shall be issued after the issue of a new series.

SEC. 135. The number, title, duties, and compensation of the officers of the association, their terms of office, the time of their election, as well as the qualifications of electors, and time of each periodical meeting of the officers and members, shall be determined by the by-laws, but no member shall be entitled to more than one vote. All officers shall continue in office until their successors are duly elected, and no association shall expire from neglect on its part to elect officers at the time prescribed by the by-laws.

SEC. 136. The officers shall hold stated monthly meetings. At or before each of these meetings, every member shall pay to the association, as a contribution to its capital, one dollar, as dues upon each share held by him, until the share reaches the ultimate value of two hundred dollars, or is withdrawn, canceled, or forfeited. Payment of dues on each series shall commence from its issue.

SEC. 137. Shares may be withdrawn after one month's notice of such intention, written in a book held and provided by the association for the purpose. Upon such withdrawal, the shareholder's account shall be settled as follows: From the amount then standing to the credit of the shares to be withdrawn, there shall be deducted all fines, a proportionate part of any unadjusted loss, together with such proportion of the profits previously credited to the shares as the by-laws may provide, and such shareholder shall be paid the balance; *provided*, that at no time shall more than one half of the funds in the treasury be applicable to the demands of withdrawing members, without the consent of the Directors. The Directors may, at their discretion, under rules made by them, retire the unpledged shares of any series at any time after four years from the date of their issue, by enforcing the withdrawal of the same; *provided*, that the shareholders whose shares are to be retired shall be determined by lot, and that they shall be paid the full value of their shares, less all fines and a proportionate part of any unadjusted loss.

SEC. 138. When each unpledged share of a given series reaches the value of two hundred dollars, all payments of dues thereon shall cease, and the holder thereof shall be paid, out of the funds of the association, two hundred dollars therefor, with interest at the rate of six per cent a year, from the time of such maturity to the time of payment; *provided*, that at no time shall more than one half of the funds in the treasury be applicable to the payment of such matured shares, without the consent of the Directors, and that before paying matured shares all arrears and fines shall be deducted. Every share shall be subject to a lien for the payment of any unpaid dues, fines, interest, premiums, and other charges received thereof, which may be enforced in the manner hereinafter provided.

SEC. 139. The moneys accumulated, after due allowance made for all necessary and proper expenses, and for the withdrawal of shares, shall, at each stated monthly meeting, be offered to members according to the premiums bid by them for priority of right to a loan. Each member, whose bid is accepted, shall be entitled, upon giving proper security, to receive a loan of two hundred dollars for each share held by him, or such fractional part of two hundred dollars as the by-laws may allow. If a balance of money remains unsold after a monthly sale, the Directors may invest the same in any of the securities named in section one hundred, of chapter forty-seven, Revised Statutes, providing for investments of deposits of savings banks. Any association organized as aforesaid, may provide in its by-laws that the bid for loans at its stated monthly meetings shall, instead

of a premium, be a rate of annual interest upon the sum desired, payable in monthly installments. Such bids shall include the whole interest to be paid, and may be at any rate not less than five per cent per annum.

SEC. 140. Premiums for loans shall consist of a percentage charged on the amount lent, in addition to interest, and shall be deemed to be a consideration paid by the borrower for present use and possession of the future or ultimate value of his shares, and shall, together with interest and fines, be received by the association as a profit on the capital invested in the loan, and shall be distributed to the various shares and series of said capital as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 141. A borrowing member, for each share borrowed upon, shall, in addition to his dues and monthly premium, pay monthly interest on his loan at the rate of six per cent per annum until his shares reach the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each, or the loan has been repaid; and when said ultimate is reached, said shares and loan shall be declared canceled and satisfied, and the balance, if any, due upon the shares shall be paid to the member.

SEC. 142. For every loan made, a note secured by first mortgage of real estate shall be given, accompanied by a transfer and pledge of the shares of the borrower. The shares so pledged shall be held by the association as collateral security for the performance of the conditions of the note and mortgage. Said note and mortgage shall recite the number of shares pledged and the amount of money advanced thereon, and shall be conditional for the payment, at the stated meetings of the corporation, of the monthly dues on said shares, fines on payments in arrears, until said shares reach the ultimate value of two hundred dollars each, or said loan is otherwise canceled or discharged; *provided*, that the shares, without other security, may, in the discretion of the Directors, be pledged as security for loans to an amount not exceeding their value as adjusted at the last adjustment and valuation of shares before the time of the loan. If the borrower neglects to offer security satisfactory to the Directors, within the time prescribed by the by-laws, his right to the loan shall be forfeited, and he shall be charged with one month's interest and one month's premium at the rate bid by him, together with all expenses, if any, incurred, and the money appropriated for such loan may be reloaned at the next or any subsequent meeting.

SEC. 143. A borrower may repay a loan at any time, upon application to the association, whereupon, on settlement of his account, he shall be charged with the full amount of the original loan, together with all monthly installments of interest, premium, and fines in arrears, and shall be given credit for the withdrawing value of his shares pledged and transferred as security, and the balance shall be received by the association in full satisfaction and discharge of said loan; *provided*, that all settlements made at periods intervening between stated meetings of the Directors shall be made as of the date of the stated meeting next succeeding such settlement; *and provided*, that a borrower desiring to retain his shares and membership may, at his option, repay his loan without claiming credit for his shares, whereupon said shares shall be retransferred to him, and shall be free from any claim by reason of said canceled loan.

SEC. 144. Members who make default in the payment of their monthly dues, interest, and premiums, shall be free from any claim by reason of said canceled loan.

SEC. 144. Members who make default in the payment of their monthly dues, interest, and premiums, shall be charged a fine not exceeding two per cent a month on each dollar in arrears. No fines shall be charged after the expiration of six months from the first lapse in any such payment, or upon a fine in arrears. The shares of a member who continues in arrears more than six months shall, at the option of the Directors, if the member fails to pay the arrears within thirty days after notice, be declared forfeited, and the withdrawing value of the shares at the time of the first default shall be ascertained, and after deducting all fines and other legal charges, the balance remaining shall be transferred to an account, to be designated the forfeited share account, to the credit of the defaulting member. Said member, if not a borrower, shall be entitled, upon thirty days' notice, to receive the balance so transferred, without interest from the time of the transfer, in order of his turn, out of the funds appropriated to the payment of withdrawals. All shares so forfeited or transferred shall cease to participate in any profits of the association accruing after the last adjustment and valuation of shares before said default.

SEC. 145. If a borrowing member is in arrears for dues, interest, premiums, or fines for more than six months, the Directors may, at their discretion, declare the shares forfeited, after one month's notice, if the arrears continue unpaid. The account of such borrowing member shall then be debited with the arrears of interest, premiums, and fines to date of forfeiture, and the shares shall be credited upon the loan at their withdrawing value. The balance of the account may, and after six months shall, be enforced against the security of any legal method, or by proceedings in equity, for sale and foreclosure, jurisdiction therefor being hereby specially given to the Supreme and Superior Courts, to be exercised upon bill or petition, in a summary manner. The shares, the value whereof has been so applied in payment, shall revert to the corporation, and be held by it free from all interest, claim, or demand on the part of the borrower, or any person claiming from or under him.

SEC. 146. Upon the death of a shareholder, his legal representatives shall be entitled to receive the amount of unpledged shares of the deceased, to be ascertained as provided in section one hundred and thirty-seven for withdrawal of shares. No fines shall be charged, or profit credited, to a deceased member's account from and after his decease, unless his legal representatives assume the future payments on such shares, which they may assume

under the same rights and liabilities of the deceased. Money received for the shares of a deceased shareholder, or the shares themselves, as the case may be, shall descend to the same persons, and be distributed in the same manner that money received from a policy of life insurance on the life of a deceased person now does by law.

SEC. 147. The general accounts of every such association shall be kept by double entry. All moneys received by the association from each member shall be receipted for by persons designated by the Directors, in a pass-book provided by the association, for the use of, and to be held by the member, and said pass-book shall be plainly marked with the name and residence of the holder thereof, the number of shares held by him, and the number or designation of those series or issue to which said shares respectively belong, and the date of the issue of such series. All moneys so received shall be originally entered by the proper officer in a book to be called the cash book, to be provided by the association for the purpose, and the entries therein shall be made as to show the name or designation of the series or issues of the particular share or shares so entered, together with the amount of the dues, interest, premiums, and fines paid thereon, as the case may be. Each payment shall be classified and entered in a column devoted to its kind. Said cash book shall be closed on the last day of the month in which stated meeting is held, and shall be an exhibit of the receipt of all moneys paid by shareholders during said month. All payments made by the association for any purpose whatever shall be by order, check, or draft upon the Treasurer, signed by the President and Secretary, and indorsed by the persons in whose favor the same are drawn. The name of the payee, the amount paid, and the purpose, object, or thing for which the payment is made, together with its date, shall be entered on the margin of said order, check, or draft. The Treasurer shall dispose of and secure the safe keeping of all moneys, securities, and property of the corporation, in the manner designated by the by-laws, and the Treasurer and Secretary shall give such security for the faithful performance of their respective duties as the by-laws may direct.

SEC. 148. The profits and losses may be distributed annually, semi-annually, or quarterly, to the shares then existing, but shall be distributed at least once in each year, and whenever a new series of shares is to be issued. Profits and losses shall be distributed to the various shares existing at the time of such distribution. Losses shall be apportioned immediately after their occurrence. At each periodical distribution of profits, the Directors shall reserve, as a guaranty fund, a sum not less than one nor more than five per cent of the dues capital, which fund shall thereafter be maintained and held, and said fund shall be, at all times, available to meet losses in the business of the association from depreciation in its securities or otherwise.

SEC. 149. Any association may purchase, at any sale, public or private, any real estate upon which it may have a mortgage, judgment, lien, or other incumbrance, or in which it may have an interest, and may sell, convey, lease, or mortgage, at pleasure, the real estate so purchased, to any person or persons whatsoever. All real estate so acquired shall be sold within five years from the acquisition of title thereto.

SEC. 150. Minors may hold shares by trustees, and the shares of each shareholder, not exceeding two, shall be exempt from attachment and execution.

SEC. 151. The Bank Examiner shall perform, in reference to all loan and building associations, the same duties, and shall have the same power as are required of, or given to him, in reference to savings banks; and shall annually make report to the Legislature of such facts and statements respecting such associations, and in such form as he deems that the public interest requires. The officers of such associations shall answer truly all inquiries made, and shall make all returns required by the Bank Examiner.

APPRENTICE LAWS OF NEW YORK.

Apprentices and Employers; Consent of Legal Guardian before taking Minor as Apprentice; Indentures in Writing; by Whom Executed.

SECTION 1. On and after the passage of this Act, it shall not be lawful for any person or persons in this State to employ or take as an apprentice any minor person to learn the art or mystery of any trade or craft without first having obtained the consent of such person's legal guardian or guardians; nor shall any minor person be taken as an apprentice aforesaid unless an agreement or indenture be drawn up in writing, in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and duly executed under seal by the person or persons employing said apprentice, and also by the parents or parent, if any be living, or by the guardian or guardians of said apprentice, and likewise by said minor persons becoming an apprentice.

Contents of Indentures.

SEC. 2. Said agreement or indenture, in order to make the law valid, shall contain the following covenants and provisions:

Must be Bound for a Term of Years.

1. That said minor person shall be bound to serve his employer or employers for a term of not less than three nor more than five years.

Shall not Leave During Term of Apprenticeship; May Compel Return of Apprentice.

2. That said minor person so indentured shall not leave his said employer or employers during the term for which he shall be indentured, and if any said apprentice so indentured as aforesaid shall leave his said employer or employers, except as hereinafter provided, the said employer or employers may compel the return of said apprentice under the penalties of this Act.

Agreement of Employer in Indentures; Must give Certificate in Writing Stating Full Service of Apprenticeship.

3. That said employer or employers shall covenant and agree in said indenture to provide at all times, during the continuance of the same, suitable and proper board, lodging, and medical attendance for said apprentice, and said employer or employers shall also further covenant and agree to teach, or cause to be carefully and skillfully taught, to his or their said apprentice, every branch of his or their business to which said apprentice may be indentured, and said employer or employers shall further be bound, at the expiration of said apprenticeship, to give to said apprentice a certificate in writing, stating that said apprentice has served a full term of apprenticeship of not less than three nor more than five years at such trade or craft as may be specified in said indenture.

Non-compliance Deemed a Misdemeanor; Penalty.

SEC. 3. Any person or persons taking an apprentice without complying with the provisions of this Act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor; and on conviction thereof in the Court of Sessions, of general or special sessions, held in and for the county in which the business of said employer or employers may be conducted, shall be subject to a fine of not less than five hundred dollars, the fine to be paid to the Treasurer of said county, for the use and benefit of said county.

Indentures, How Canceled; Proceedings in Case of Violation on Part of Apprentice; Punishment for Leaving Employer; on Neglect of Apprentice to Perform his Contract, Indenture May be Canceled.

SEC. 4. Any person and all indentures made under and in pursuance of the provisions of this Act shall not be canceled or annulled before the expiration of the term of said indentures, except in case of death; or by order of, or judgment of the County or Supreme Court of this State for good cause, and any apprentice so indentured, who shall leave his employer or employers, without his or their consent, or without sufficient cause, and shall refuse to return, may be arrested upon the complaint of said employer or employers, and taken before any magistrate having jurisdiction of misdemeanors, who may cancel said indentures, and on conviction may commit said apprentice to the House of Correction, House of Refuge, or County Jail, in and for said county, for such length of time as such magistrate may deem just, or until said apprentice shall have attained the age of twenty-one years, and in case said apprentice so indentured shall willfully neglect or refuse to perform his portion of the contract as specified in said indenture, then said indenture may be canceled in the manner aforesaid, and said apprentice so violating said indentures shall forfeit all back pay and all claims against said employer or employers, and said indentures shall be canceled.

May bring Action on Failure of Employer to Provide for and Teach Apprentices; and if Proven Indentures to be Canceled and Fine Imposed.

SEC. 5. Should any employer or employers neglect or refuse to teach, or cause to be taught to said apprentice, the art or mystery of the trade or craft to which said apprentice has been indentured, or fail at any time to provide suitable and proper board, lodging, and medical attendance, said apprentice, individually, or his parent or parents, guardian or guardians, may bring an action against said employer or employers, to recover damages sustained by reason of said neglect or refusal; and if proved to the satisfaction of the Court, said Court shall direct said indentures to be canceled, and may impose a fine on said employer or employers, not exceeding one thousand dollars and not less than one hundred dollars, and said fine shall be collected and paid over to said apprentice, or his parent or guardian, for his sole use and benefit.

Indentures Conflicting with this Act Invalid.

SEC. 6. Any indenture made and executed, wherein parts conflict with, or are not in accordance with the provisions of this Act, shall be invalid, and without any binding effect.

Repeal.

SEC. 7. All Acts or parts of Acts inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed.

REVISED STATUTES, PART II, CHAPTER VII, ARTICLE III.

Indentures—When Invalid.

SECTION 26. No indenture or contract for the service of any apprentice shall be valid as against the person whose services may be claimed, unless made in the manner before prescribed in this title.

Duties of County Superintendents and Overseers of the Poor.

SEC. 27. The County Superintendent of the Poor, and the Overseers of the Poor of the respective cities or towns, shall be the guardians of every person bound or held in service in their respective cities or towns, to take care that the terms of the contract of service be fulfilled, and that such person be properly used; and it is hereby made their special duty to inquire into the treatment of every such person, and redress any grievance in the manner prescribed by law.

Penalty on Apprentices Absenting Themselves from Service.

SEC. 28. If any person, lawfully bound to service under either of the preceding articles of this title, shall willfully absent himself from such service, without the leave of his master, he shall be compelled to serve double the time of such absence, unless he shall otherwise make satisfaction for the loss and injury sustained by such absence; but such additional term of service shall not extend beyond three years next after the end of the original term of service.

Apprentices, etc., How Compelled to Serve.

SEC. 29. If any such person shall refuse to serve according to the provisions of this title, or the terms of his contract or indentures, his master may apply to any Justice of the Peace of the county, or to the Mayor, Recorder, or any Alderman of the city where he shall reside, who shall be authorized by warrant, or otherwise, to send for the person so refusing, and if such refusal be persisted in to commit such person by warrant to the Bridewell, House of Correction, or common jail of the city or county, there to remain until such person will consent to serve according to law.

Journeymen and Apprentices Not to be Restrained in Using their Trade.

SEC. 39. No person shall accept from any journeyman or apprentice any contract or agreement, nor cause him to be bound by oath or otherwise, that after his term of service expired, such journeyman or apprentice shall not set up his trade, profession, or employment at any particular place, shop, house, or cellar; nor any person exact from any journeyman or apprentice, after his term of service expired, any money or other thing for using and exercising his trade, profession, or employment in any place.

Penalties.

SEC. 40. Every security given contrary to the provisions contained in the last section shall be void. Any money paid or valuable thing delivered for the consideration in part or in whole of any such agreement, or using such obligation to be entered into, or exacting money or other thing as aforesaid, shall forfeit one hundred dollars to the apprentice or journeyman from whom the same shall have been received.

Application of this Title to Females.

SEC. 43. The provisions of this title shall apply as well to mistresses, female guardians, apprentices, and wards, respectively, as to masters, male guardians, apprentices, and wards.

MASSACHUSETTS LAWS.

An Act Relating to the Employment of Minors who cannot Read and Write in the English Language.

SECTION 1. Every owner, superintendent, or overseer of any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, who employs, or permits to be employed therein, a minor under fourteen years of age who cannot read and write in the English language, except during the vacation of the public schools in the city or town where such minor lives, and every parent or guardian who permits such employment, shall, for every such offense, forfeit not less than twenty nor more than fifty dollars, for the use of the public schools of such city or town.

SEC. 2. Every person who regularly employs, or permits to be employed, a minor, fourteen years of age, or over, who cannot read and write in the English language, providing such minor has been, since reaching the age of fourteen, continuously for one year a resident of a city or town in this commonwealth wherein public evening schools are maintained, and is not a regular attendant of a day or evening school, shall, for every such offense, forfeit not less than fifty nor more than one hundred dollars, for the use of the evening schools of such city or town.

SEC. 3. Whenever it appears that the labor of any minor, who would be debarred from employment under section two of this Act, is necessary for the support of the family to which said minor belongs, or for his own support, the school committee of said city or town may, in the exercise of their discretion, issue a permit authorizing the employment of such minor within such time or times as they may fix, and the provisions of said section two shall not apply to such minor so long as said permit is in force.

SEC. 4. Two weeks next before the opening of each term of the evening schools the school committee shall, by posters posted in three or more public places of said city or town, give notice of the location of said schools, the date of the commencement of the term, the evenings of the week during which such schools shall be kept, the provisions of section two of this Act as to forfeiture for non-compliance with said section, and such regulations as to attendance as they shall deem proper.

SEC. 5. Section seven of chapter forty-eight of the Public Statutes is hereby repealed.

SEC. 6. This Act shall take effect on the first day of October, in the year one thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven.

Approved June 16, 1887.

An Act Relating to Elevators, Hatchways, Belting, Shafting, Machinery, and for the Prevention of Accidents.

SECTION 13. The belting, shafting, gearing, and drums of all factories, when so placed as to be, in the opinion of the inspectors mentioned in section nine of chapter one hundred and three, dangerous to persons employed therein while engaged in their ordinary duties, shall be so far as practicable securely guarded. No machinery, other than steam engines, in a factory shall be cleaned while running, if objected to in writing by one of said inspectors. All factories shall be well ventilated and kept clean.

SEC. 14. The openings of all hatchways, elevators, and wellholes, upon every floor of a factory, or mercantile or public building, shall be protected by good, sufficient trapdoors, or self-closing hatches and safety catches, or such other safeguards as said inspectors direct; and all due diligence shall be used to keep such trapdoors closed at all times, except when in actual use by the occupant of the building having the use and control of the same. All elevator cabs or cars, whether for freight or passengers, shall be provided with some suitable mechanical device, to be approved by the said inspectors, whereby the cabs or cars will be securely held in the event of accident to the shipper rope, or hoisting machinery, or from any similar cause.

SEC. 15. All factories and manufacturing establishments, three or more stories in height, in which forty or more persons are employed, unless supplied with a sufficient number of tower stairways, shall be provided with sufficient fire escapes, properly constructed upon the outside thereof, and connected with the interior by doors or windows, with suitable landings at every story above the first, including the attic, if the same is occupied for workrooms. Such fire escapes will be kept in good repair and free from obstruction. Fire escapes existing on the first day of July, in the year eighteen hundred and seventy-seven, need not be changed in consequence of the provisions of this section, unless such change is necessary for the protection of life. Cities may by ordinance provide that the provisions of this section relating to fire escapes shall apply to all buildings three or more stories in height within their limits.

SEC. 16. Every room above the second story in factories or workshops, in which five or more operatives are employed, shall, except as provided in the following section, be provided with more than one way of egress by stairways on the inside or outside of the building; and such stairways shall be, as nearly as may be practicable, at opposite ends of the room. Stairways on the outside of the building shall have suitable railed landings at each story above the first, and shall connect with each story of the building by doors or windows opening outwardly; and such doors, windows, and landings shall be kept at all times clear of obstruction.

SEC. 17. A factory or workshop which, before the fifteenth day of April, in the year eighteen hundred and eighty, had proper fire escapes, in accordance with section fifteen, need not conform to the provisions of the preceding section, unless since such fire escapes were constructed there have been such changes in the building, or in the number of persons employed therein, as to make it, in the opinion of the inspectors, necessary for the protection of life.

SEC. 18. Said inspectors may accept such other provision for escape in case of fire, instead of those required in section sixteen, as may seem to them to be ample for the purpose; but women or children shall not be employed, above the second story, in a room from which there is only one way of egress.

SEC. 19. All the main doors, both inside and outside, in factories shall open outwardly, when the inspectors of factories, in writing, so direct. Each story shall be amply supplied with means for extinguishing fire.

SEC. 20. (This section prescribes means of egress from churches and public buildings, etc., and is not germain to the subject of labor, except the following concerning tenement houses.) Every building three or more stories in height, in whole or in part, used, occupied, leased, or rented for a tenement, to be occupied by more than four families, or a lodging house, shall be provided with a sufficient means of escape in case of fire, to be approved by the inspectors of factories and public buildings.

SEC. 21. No explosive or inflammable compound shall be used in any factory in such place or manner as to obstruct or render hazardous the egress of operatives in case of fire.

SEC. 22. Any person or corporation being the owner, lessee, or occupant of a manufacturing establishment, factory, or workshop, or owning or controlling the use of any building or room mentioned in section twenty, shall, for the violation of any provisions of sections thirteen to twenty-one, inclusive, be punished by a fine of not less than fifty nor more than five hundred dollars; and shall also be liable for all damages suffered by an employé by reason of such violation, until four weeks after notice in writing by an inspector of factories and public buildings of any changes necessary to be made to comply with the provisions of said sections has been sent by mail or delivered to such person or corporation; nor then, if in the meantime such changes have been made in accordance with such notification. Notice to one member of a firm, or the clerk or Treasurer of a corporation, owning, leasing, occupying, or controlling, as aforesaid, shall be deemed a sufficient notice under this section to all the members of such firm or corporation. Nothing in this section shall be so construed as to prohibit a person injured from bringing an action to recover damages for his injuries.

SEC. 23. The authority of said inspectors to enforce the provisions of sections thirteen to twenty-two, inclusive, shall not extend to the City of Boston, or to any other city, which, under its charter or any other special statute, has officers specially appointed for the enforcement of the same or similar provisions.

SEC. 24. A district police officer, detailed to perform the duties by sections thirteen to twenty-one, inclusive, who fails to perform such duties faithfully, shall be immediately discharged from his office.

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